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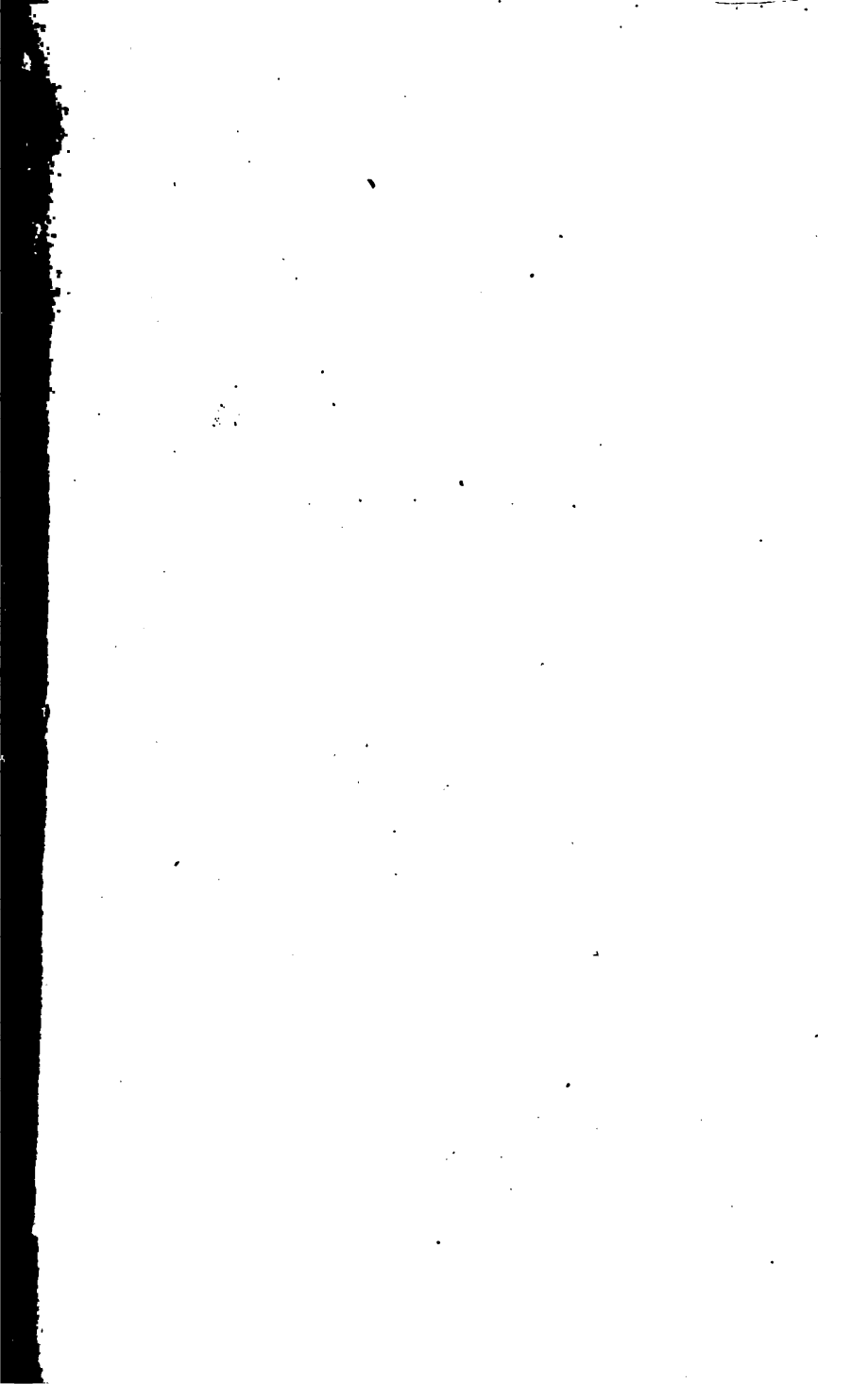
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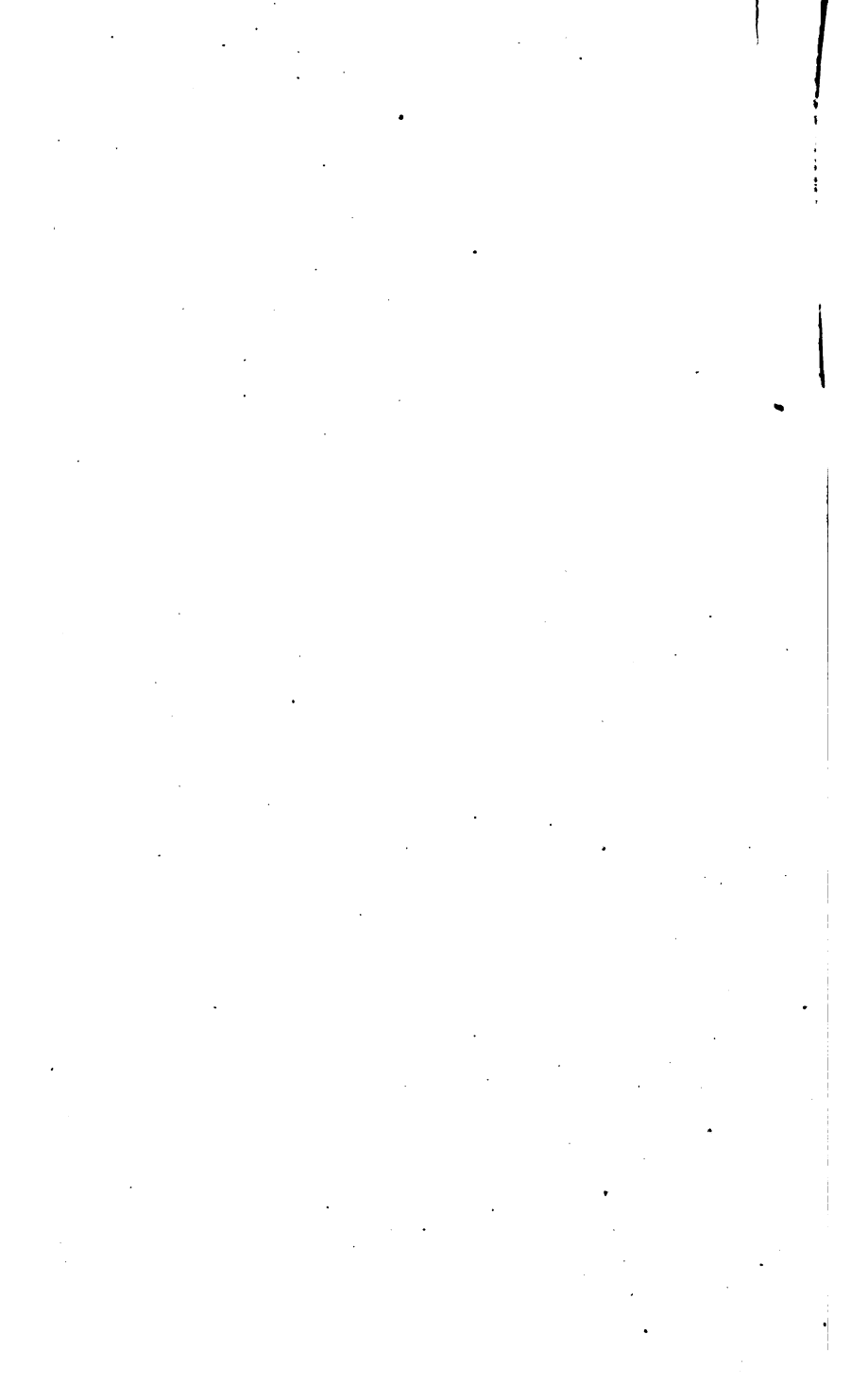
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**ON THE STATE
OF
EDUCATION IN HOLLAND.**

G. WOODFALL, ANGEL COURT, SKINNER STREET, LONDON.

ON THE STATE
OF
EDUCATION IN HOLLAND,
AS REGARDS
SCHOOLS FOR THE WORKING CLASSES
AND FOR THE POOR;

BY
M. VICTOR COUSIN,
PEER OF FRANCE, MEMBER OF THE INSTITUTE, AND OF THE COUNCIL OF
PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, AND DIRECTOR OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL.

TRANSLATED,
WITH
PRELIMINARY OBSERVATIONS,
ON THE NECESSITY OF LEGISLATIVE MEASURES, TO EXTEND AND
IMPROVE EDUCATION AMONG THE WORKING CLASSES AND THE POOR
IN GREAT BRITAIN; AND ON THE COURSE MOST ADVISABLE TO
PURSUE AT THE PRESENT TIME;

BY,
LEONARD HORNER, Esq., F.R.S.

London:
JOHN MURRAY, ALBEMARLE STREET.

1838.



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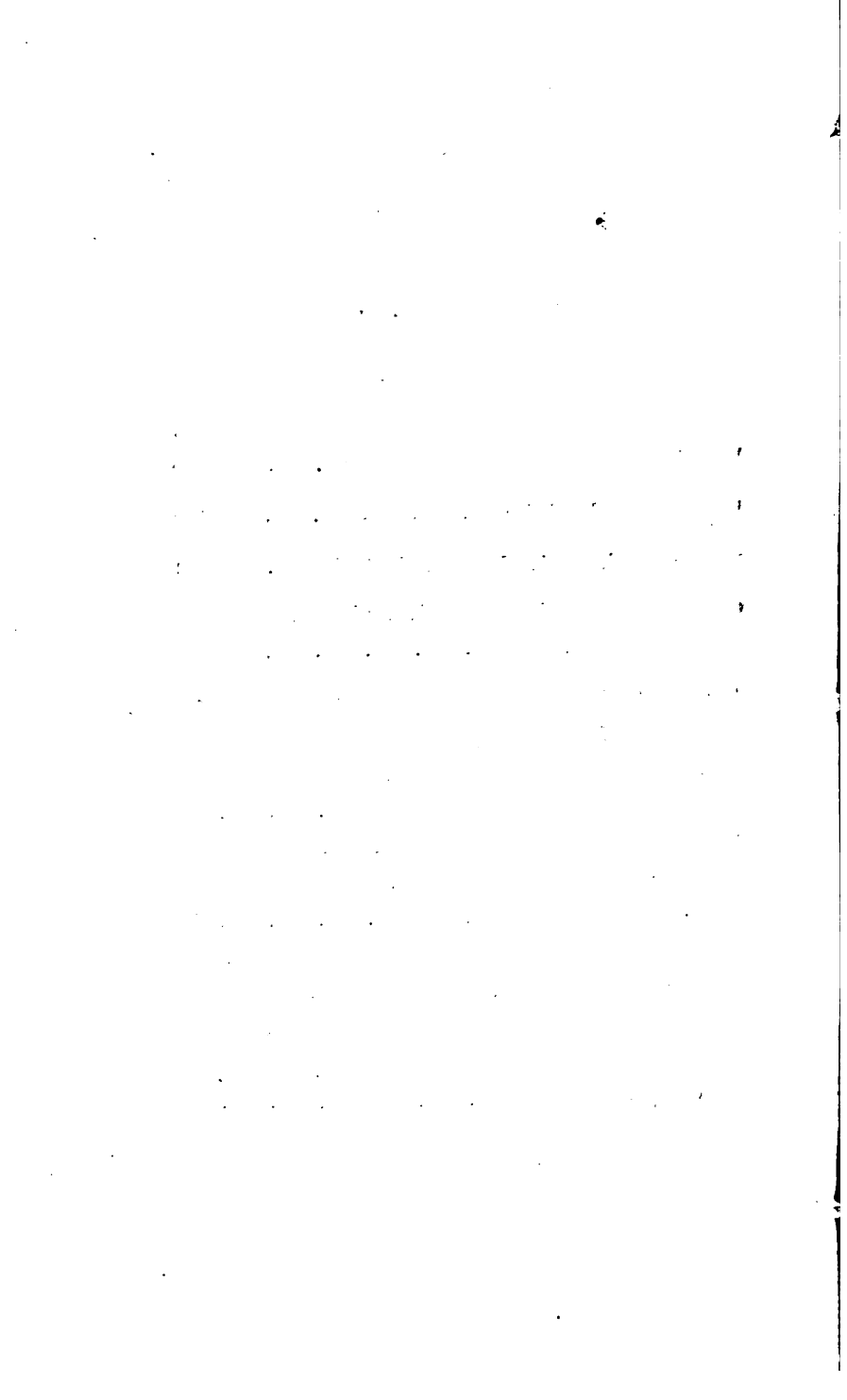
"The science of education is an essential branch of moral and political philosophy. Like all other departments of science, worthy of that name, it has need of being surrounded by the light of experience; and to avoid the danger of being misled by fantastic theories, we must lose no opportunity of obtaining an accurate acquaintance with the various systems of education that are followed by all great civilized nations."

52835-

COUSIN.

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PRELIMINARY OBSERVATIONS,

ON THE NECESSITY OF LEGISLATIVE MEASURES TO EXTEND AND IMPROVE EDUCATION AMONG THE WORKING CLASSES AND THE POOR IN GREAT BRITAIN: AND ON THE COURSE MOST ADVISABLE TO PURSUE AT THE PRESENT TIME.

FROM the most authentic returns that have hitherto been obtained, there is every reason to believe that the number of existing schools for the education of the children of the working classes and of the poor, in England and Wales, bears a very inadequate proportion to the population; and it is even maintained that they are not sufficient for more than a half of the children of the school age, including those who ought to be sent to infant schools. In Scotland the deficiency is not nearly so great, in the rural districts at least; but the supply of schools, especially in the manufacturing towns, such as Glasgow and Dundee, is quite inadequate to the wants of the people in that part of the United Kingdom. The proofs of this discreditable fact have been already laid

before the public in so many recent publications, that it is quite unnecessary to repeat them here. The enquiries lately conducted under the direction and at the expense of the Statistical Society of Manchester, were carried on with so much attention to accuracy, that they are perhaps more to be relied upon for specific information than most others on this subject; and all who wish to see a true picture of the scantiness of the supply of schools, and of the low condition of a large proportion of those which do exist, in some of the most populous districts of the country, will do well to peruse the interesting and valuable reports which have been published by that society^a.

I have had extensive opportunities, as Inspector of Factories, of witnessing the neglected condition of our manufacturing population in this respect, and an enquiry which I instituted for the purpose of ascertaining the state of education among the factory children in Manchester confirmed, in a striking manner, the correctness of the inferences which had been drawn from the facts stated by the Statistical Society, of the large numbers of children who were

^a Reports have been published on Manchester, Salford, Bury, and Liverpool; and one on York will shortly appear.

not attending schools of any kind at the time of their enquiry ; namely, that a very large proportion of the children in that great town must be destitute of all instruction. The following is an extract from my official report to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, dated the 18th of January, 1837 :

“In my last Report I alluded to observations which had been made to me by some mill-owners, who held that the education clauses of the act^a are unnecessary, because factory children are known, they said, to be better off in that respect than other children of the working classes; and I then stated facts somewhat contradictory of that assertion. Since that time, I have obtained additional proof that, in some situations at least, the factory children form no exception to that state of destitution, as regards education, which prevails among the children of the working classes in this country, and to an extent of which few seem to be sufficiently aware.”

“Being convinced that in no other way is it possible to know with accuracy the amount of their ignorance, even of the first elements of education, than by an actual examination of the children individually, and that all returns made from a less exact mode of pro-

^a Factories' Regulation Act, 3 and 4 Wm. IV. c. 103.

ceeding are little to be depended upon, I went to an extensive factory in Manchester with a New Testament and spelling-book, and had the children brought one by one before me for examination. I restricted myself to children of 13 and 14 years of age, in order to see the state of those whose elementary education ought to be completed, and who, by working twelve hours a day, could have no time for their mental and moral improvement. When they told me that they could read, I laid before them a chapter in the Gospel of St. Matthew : some could read it with ease, others with great difficulty, and some could make nothing of it. To these last I presented the spelling-book, in which some could read words of one syllable, some the alphabet only, and some had not even advanced so far as that step. If they said they could write, I desired them to sign their names. I took a note of the attainment of each child examined. Mr. Ewings, one of my superintendents, was with me ; and after I had instructed him as to what I wanted, I left him to prosecute the inquiry in that and other mills. Mr. Heathcote, another superintendent, afterwards gave his assistance, and I had the examinations continued until I had got returns of 2,000 children from 19 different factories situated in different parts of Manchester. The particulars are given in the Appendix

to this report, No. 2; and the following is a brief summary of the results:—

Of the 2000, 186 did not know the alphabet;

372 knew the alphabet only;

509 knew words of one syllable only;

making 1,067 who could not read, or 53½ per cent.

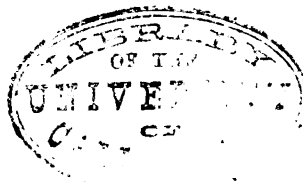
322 read the Testament with difficulty; and

611 read it with ease.

2,000

“Thus it appears that those who could read to any practical purpose amounted to considerably less than a third of the whole number. What proportion of these, upon further inquiry, would have been found to understand *the meaning* of what they read, there was no opportunity of ascertaining; but, judging from an examination of some children of the more advanced classes in a Sunday-school in Manchester, which I made for that purpose, the probability is, that the number of those who had got beyond a mechanical facility of pronouncing the words, would have been very small. The number of those who could sign their names amounted to 441; *viz.* 341 out of 1,040 boys, and 100 out of 960 girls.”

“I do not mean to say that this experiment proves that the factory children are worse than others; the



probability is, that an examination of the children of the same age employed in other occupations in Manchester, would give the same result; neither do I mean to say that it affords any criterion of the state of education among the factory children elsewhere; it speaks for Manchester alone; but, coupled with the facts narrated in the Report of the Manchester Statistical Society, mentioned in my last report, it shows very clearly the dangerous state of ignorance of the young people among the working classes of that great town; and how necessary it is that something effectual should be done, without delay, to correct so enormous an evil. It is not unimportant to notice that most of the children examined are receiving from 5s. to 7s. a-week, and that the fathers of many of them are getting 1*l.* 10s. a-week, and even more in some instances." ^a

It is not alone in the want of a sufficient number of schools that the evil consists, for it is equally well known that in a very large number of the schools attended by children who are classed in official and other returns as receiving education, the teachers are wholly incompetent, and the instruction given is of the most imperfect kind; it is often a mere

^a See Reports of the Inspectors of Factories, presented to both Houses of Parliament—March, 1837.

mockery of education. Those who are not aware of this from personal observation, will find many instances stated in the above mentioned reports of the Statistical Society of Manchester, as well as in several other recent publications. Another great defect in the larger proportion of elementary schools, familiar to all who do something more than listen to what is exhibited to them by the teacher, is the total absence of all attempts to cultivate the understanding of the child, and of all examination whether he attaches any distinct meaning to the words he is pronouncing. As words are but the signs of ideas, it is evident that teaching to read is the mere initiatory step in education; and yet we know that a large proportion of the children, who attend the schools to which we are now alluding, leave them with little more than the mechanical acquirement of being able to pronounce certain sounds. Of what avail is it to teach the child to read his bible or to repeat his catechism, if the meaning of the words and phrases he pronounces be not made clear to his mind; as far, at least, as his powers of understanding are developed? Unless this be done, religious education is a name and not a reality; and all he learns must be soon forgotten, or, if he remembers it, can have little influence on his future character. This mechanical system of instruction, this teaching of children as we

do parrots, may be aptly illustrated by the proceedings of certain worthy persons, who being desirous of advancing the civilization of the Highlanders of Scotland, thought that they could not take a more effectual step for that purpose than by teaching them the English language; and so far they thought wisely. They accordingly established schools, and the little kilted fellows quickly acquired the art of reading an English book with surprising fluency. But their teachers forgot one very essential part of the lesson, *they omitted to translate the English into Gaelic*, the only language which the Highlanders understood; and it will readily be imagined how much they gained by the perusal of their English books. Ludicrous as this statement may appear, it is nevertheless true; and it is so at the present day, unless a change has taken place within the last four years. In the interesting report by Mr. Allen Menzies, clerk to the trustees of Mr. Dick's bequest^a, we find the following passages. Speaking of schools in the Highland districts, which he had inspected in the spring of 1833, he says: "Gaelic children—boys and girls—possessed apparently of the best natural capacity, and betraying in

^a In 1828, Mr. James Dick of Finsbury Square bequeathed to certain trustees the sum of £113,000, to apply the annual produce thereof for the benefit of the parochial schoolmasters in the counties of Aberdeen, Banff and Moray. See Report, Edinburgh, 1835.

the ease and freedom of their manner, and in their reported facility of expression and illustration in their vernacular tongue, a moral intelligence and sensibility rarely exhibited by the corresponding class in more civilized regions, are found reading English with a degree of fluency indicative of their aptitude to receive instruction, but without the slightest apprehension of the object or meaning either of the passage generally, or of any particular term employed in it." p. 111.—In his special reports upon two of these schools he says, "But a great and melancholy evil prevailing in this district is the utter ignorance under which the scholars labour of the English language, and consequently of the meaning of almost every word they learn at school. I tried some of them with very simple words, but the teacher told me it was needless, as they had no idea of the meaning of English words. The accuracy with which English is read, under the circumstances above noticed, is astonishing" p. 112.—"This school is taught entirely on the old system, and this is one of the cases where the evils of that system are particularly apparent, from the number of Gaelic children. These, familiarized at home to the Gaelic dialect, acquire mechanically at school a knowledge of the sound of English words, but none of their sense; and it is distressing to hear them read with perfect accuracy and

fluency, and at the same time to reflect, that merely their eyes and their ears have received instruction, and that their minds remain in the same state of ignorance as if they had not attended school." p. 114.

Experience has sufficiently proved that it is vain to expect that the evils arising from a deficient number of schools, from the incompetency of teachers, and from the imperfections of the system upon which the schools for the humbler classes are conducted, will ever be corrected, unless the subject be taken up by parliament, and the evil be remedied by some general legislative measure. It must be abundantly clear by this time, that the maxim "*laissez nous faire*," however true in matters of trade, is applicable only to a limited extent in education; and least of all in the case of such schools as we are now considering. If there had been a general demand for a good education, the present state of things would probably not have existed; but it is notorious that, among a very large portion of the people, no such demand exists: they have not yet, to use a commercial phrase, acquired any taste for the commodity, and they are not the least aware of the many losses they sustain from the want of it. Many of them find that they can get their daily necessities supplied without any education at all; others are contented with a base coin bearing the stamp of education, the worthlessness of which

they are ignorant of, because they find it passes currently; and therefore they do not concern themselves about enquiring into its intrinsic worth.

The day is happily gone by when it was necessary to debate the question, whether the lower orders should be educated at all; the question now is, how they shall be best educated; how they shall be elevated from a state of mere animal existence to the proper station of moral, intellectual, and responsible beings. If any alarmists still exist, who think that the education of the humbler classes is inconsistent with, or dangerous to, the maintenance of that due subordination which is necessary for the good order of society, the examples of Prussia and Holland should dispel their fears; countries in which the people are distinguished for their morality, their religious feelings, and their respect for constituted authorities; and in which the governments cannot be suspected of sowing the seeds of discontent and revolution.

The conviction of the necessity of legislative interference in this matter, now prevails to so great an extent throughout the country, and has of late been so loudly expressed, that it cannot be long delayed. From what the Marquis of Lansdowne said in his place in the House of Lords at the close of the last session of parliament, from what Lord John Russell lately stated upon the occasion of a motion by Mr.

Slaney, and from the known and avowed opinions of other members of Her Majesty's Government, it is evident that they only hesitate in bringing forward a general measure, from the difficulties with which the question is surrounded; difficulties which are admitted to exist by all parties. But these declarations of ministers of the crown afford a well grounded hope that, by some comprehensive plan, which shall secure to the great body of the people of Great Britain the means of obtaining an education that will elevate their moral and religious character, enlarge their general intelligence, and increase their enjoyments, the present government will establish a claim to the lasting gratitude of their country; not inferior to that which enlightened and unprejudiced men of all parties willingly allow they have established, by their other great measure for improving the condition of the labouring classes, the Poor Law Amendment Act.

But urgent as is the necessity for this interference of parliament, nothing is more to be dreaded than hasty legislation in this matter; than a law framed without a minute and careful investigation of the whole subject. The evils of delay are as nothing in comparison of what might follow from a false step. The difficulties which belong to the subject, under the most favourable circumstances, are greatly increased by the present excited state of parties; for it is hardly to be

expected that the question will be taken up in that calm and impartial spirit, so necessary to its right settlement.

A noble and learned lord, who for many years has directed his powerful mind to the advancement of education, and to whom the country is largely indebted for his exertions in this cause, has brought in a Bill for the establishment of an educational department in the government. In the speech which Lord Brougham delivered, on the temporary withdrawal of that Bill, at the close of last session, he stated that, "it cannot be doubted that some legislative effort must at length be made to remove from this country the opprobrium of having done less for the education of the people than any one of the more civilized nations of the earth."^a His lordship's Bill is intituled, "An Act for promoting Education and regulating Charities," but in his speech on the occasion above alluded to, the noble lord explains his object more fully, for he says that by the adoption of his Bill "a Department of Public Instruction, as it is termed in foreign countries, say a Board of Education, would be established, with most of the powers necessary for performing its functions,"—and after pointing out the defective

^a Mirror of Parliament, 29 June, 1837.

state of the elementary schools in England, he adds—"Now the remedy with which I propose to meet this unhappy state of things, is one to which I verily believe there is hardly any reflecting man in the community that has not at some time or other turned his thoughts—I mean, the formation of a department in the state which shall have the superintendence of education in all its branches. In other countries this is called the Department of Public Instruction. Call it here the Board of Education—I won't stop to dispute about a name."

Any measure respecting education which emanates from that noble lord, naturally comes with a great weight of authority, in the estimation of a large portion of the community; but in so important a question, every proposal, let it come from what quarter it may, ought to be thoroughly investigated, and its adaptation to the object in view severely tried. After a careful examination of the Bill, and of the speeches which his lordship delivered, in explanation of his views, on the 29th of June and 1st of December last, it appears to me that there are several grave objections to his plan, and that it does not by any means meet the exigencies of the case. I shall therefore embrace the opportunity which the present publication affords of stating the principal objections that occur to me, and my reasons for thinking

that the Bill of the noble lord will not accomplish the object we are desirous to attain. In doing this, I trust that I shall not be considered wanting in the respect due to that eminent statesman, or appear insensible to the benevolent and enlightened views by which he has been actuated, in devoting, for so many years of his life, so much of his time and thoughts to advance the best interests of the humbler classes of society. I have only seen the Bill which was printed by order of the House of Lords last session, but from all that appears in the newspaper report of what Lord Brougham said on the 1st of December, when he again brought forward his plan, although the two parts of the Bill of last session are now separated into two distinct Bills, there is no alteration in the leading principles of the measure.

The great object to be accomplished I conceive to be this; that there shall be established, by law, a sufficient number of well conducted schools, in due proportion to the extent of the population, in all parts of the country; where all the children of the working classes and of the poor may receive an education suited to their circumstances and to their station in life, and calculated to improve their religious, moral, and intellectual character; which schools, for the sake of a convenient general appellation, and for want of a

better, may be called **PRIMARY SCHOOLS**; and, in like manner, the whole range of subjects taught therein may be designated by the general term of **PRIMARY INSTRUCTION**.

That all the institutions for education in the country, from the universities downwards, are capable of improvement, and stand in need of adaptation to the altered circumstances of the times, may be very true; and that the means of an enlarged education for the middle classes generally, and for the youth and adults among the working classes, with opportunities for the rational and profitable employment of their leisure hours, ought to be extended, admits of little doubt; but the immediate, the pressing evil, does not lie in that direction; it is the deficiency in number of primary schools, the imperfect instruction given in those now existing, and the want of a sufficient number of properly qualified teachers, which call aloud for a speedy and an effective remedy. That such is the view of Lord Brougham is evident; for all the arguments he makes use of to persuade the House of Lords to adopt his measure are founded upon the defective state of primary instruction in England; there is no allusion to imperfections in any branch of higher education.

It is therefore of great importance that legislative interference should, for the present, be strictly

confined to the one object of primary instruction : it is surrounded with so many difficulties, that any thing which may tend to render the measure more complicated, or to stir up unnecessary opposition to it, should be studiously avoided. Now it is clear that any attempt to bring, not to say the universities and great public schools for the wealthier classes, but the endowed grammar and other schools of the like nature, at which the children of the middle classes are educated, under the cognizance of a public board, would render the legislative proceedings infinitely more complicated, would introduce divisions of opinion which, otherwise, would have no existence, and would probably raise a host of opposition that might postpone all improvement in primary instruction to an indefinite period.

The Bill of Lord Brougham provides (Section 6) that inspectors, to be appointed by the commissioners, “ shall have power to examine and report upon the state, condition, and conducting of all schools and seminaries concerning which the Commissioners acting under an Act passed in the fifth and sixth years of His present (late) Majesty’s reign, intituled *An Act for appointing Commissioners to continue the Inquiries concerning Charities in England and Wales, until the first day of March, 1837*, were authorized to inquire.” The schools and seminaries

concerning which the Charity Commissioners are authorized to inquire are not specified in that Act, (5 and 6 W. IV. c. 71,) but those places of education are named which they are *not* to interfere with. It is provided that nothing in the Act shall extend to the Universities of Oxford or Cambridge; or to any college within the same; or to schools or other endowments of which these universities or colleges are trustees; or to the schools of Westminster, Eton, Winchester, Charter House, Harrow, or Rugby; or to schools exclusively for Quakers, Catholics, or Jews. These, together with certain charitable institutions, supported by voluntary contributions, are all the exceptions stated in the Act. It will thus be seen that the powers of the proposed board, and of the inspectors acting under the direction of that board, would go much beyond schools for the working classes and the poor, and that they would take a very wide range. The Bill, it is true, speaks only of "establishing or carrying on infant or training schools and other schools, and model schools, and schools or seminaries for training teachers," (Section 3,) and, from the speeches of his lordship, primary schools appear to be the main object he has in view; but that he does not intend the powers of the Commissioners to be limited to such schools, appears from the 3d section of his Bill, and from his speech on

the 29th of June, wherein he says, "I mean the formation of a department in the state which shall have the superintendence of education IN ALL ITS BRANCHES."

A board of Commissioners taking no cognizance of the universities and great public schools; who, as is proposed in Lord Brougham's Bill, (section 8,) should have no right to interfere with a large proportion of other schools, except "*with the consent of the master, mistress, teacher, or other persons having the care and superintendence of the same,*" would have no resemblance to the Minister of Public Instruction in foreign countries; and not even as regards primary schools. Although it is desirable and necessary that education should form a distinct department in the general government of the country, it is clear that the establishment of a Minister of Public Instruction, under whatever form or name it might be, with power at all analogous to that with which that minister is invested on the continent, would not be listened to; and the functions of a Board of Education must, for a long time at least, be strictly confined to the branch of primary instruction. When it has been proved by experience that legislative interference works well in regulating primary schools, it will then be time to consider whether the same influence may be beneficially extended to other de-

partments of education. There can be very little doubt that the improvement of primary schools would lead to vast changes for the better in all higher places of education, even without legislative enactments.

But even supposing it were advisable for parliament to proceed, without farther inquiry, to the appointment of a board of education, there is a radical defect in Lord Brougham's plan, in combining two measures that have no necessary connection ; namely, the improvement of primary schools, and the better administration of charitable funds. That the latter is called for, that, by such interference, a large sum may be made available for educational purposes without committing any wrong, there can be no doubt ; and the judicial tribunal proposed by his lordship, may be very skilfully contrived for that end ; upon that point I presume not to offer any opinion : but the functions of commissioners for regulating charitable endowments, and for improving primary education, have nothing in common : the funds provided by commissioners, acting in that judicial capacity, may be made available to commissioners of education equally well, if they constituted two distinct boards. But the strongest proof of the inexpediency and of the disadvantage of combining the two functions in the same persons is to be found in the second section

of the Bill, where it is provided, that the three paid commissioners, those in fact who are to possess the real power, must be "*Sergeants at Law or Barristers at Law.*" It is no doubt necessary that lawyers should be selected for the judicial duties, but by this enactment, the great purpose of the law,—that which is admitted by Lord Brougham himself to be the great purpose,—for he says, "I certainly regard the extension and improvement of education as the most important office of the new department"—may be defeated; the major consideration is sacrificed to the minor; for persons who might be universally acknowledged to be the most eminently fitted for carrying through the great object would be excluded, unless they happened to be Sergeants at Law or Barristers at Law; and of seven years' standing besides.

The expediency of making two cabinet ministers (the President of the Council and the Lord Privy Seal) members of a board for the management of primary schools, may also fairly be questioned. There is in the first place the general objection to *ex-officio* commissioners, in such matters; they may, by taste and want of previous information, be quite unsuited to the duties; or just as they have got acquainted with the business, they may be replaced by others, to whom the subject may be as strange as it was to their predecessors. In the second place, unless the cabinet

ministers were to give constant attention to the whole progress of those matters in which they are to have a voice, they would either become cyphers, or they would impede rather than promote the efficiency of the three paid commissioners. In his speech on the 29th of June, Lord Brougham says, "Whatever general regulations are to be adopted will be considered by the whole board." Now without imputing to them any want of benevolence or any insensibility to the importance of such objects, is it reasonably to be expected that cabinet ministers, engaged in the great game of politics, and with their minds bent upon important acts of their administration which may be under public discussion, can occupy themselves with questions of detail about schoolmasters and school books?—and if any improvement in primary instruction is to be affected by the instrumentality of such a board, schoolmasters and school books must be among the most important subjects of "general regulation." If the addition of cabinet ministers be necessary with reference to the administration of charitable funds, it is another argument against combining the two objects in one board. The Poor Law Commissioners are to all intents and purposes a department of the government, and they are efficient without cabinet ministers being joined with them. In like manner, as the Poor Law Com-

missioners are, in certain matters, controlled by the Secretary of State for the Home Department, a direct and efficient control over the proceedings of Commissioners of a Board of Education, an identification of them with the government, as far as that is desirable or proper, might be established, if certain acts of a general nature required the approbation of two cabinet ministers, the one a peer and the other a commoner, who should be considered in each house of parliament as the responsible minister for that educational department.

If new schools are to be established upon an improved system, by legislative interference, schoolmasters to conduct them must be provided; and if normal schools for training such masters are to be instituted, the system of instruction in which they are to be initiated, that which is to receive the legislative sanction as an improvement, must be decided upon; and this involves the previous settlement of the whole question of primary instruction, in all its details. If these details be not sound in principle, and be not adapted to the particular circumstances of the country and of the locality, and if they do not combine harmoniously, any general measure will assuredly fail.

The functions of the commissioners, as regards education, are defined to a very limited extent only

by the Bill of Lord Brougham. Full powers are given to them, by the third section, "to establish such schools and seminaries where no application for aid may be made, *according to their discretion*, and according to such rules as they may from time to time make for their own guidance in the administration of such funds." Now this is nothing less than confiding to them the whole subject of primary instruction, in so far as it is to be extended and improved by legislative interference: it is giving *carte blanche* to the commissioners, and virtually to the three paid commissioners, to establish normal schools, those which are to be held up as an example to the rest of the country, according to their own views; an undefined power which ought not to be vested in any set of men. The country neither will, nor ought to be, satisfied with any law for the establishment of a Board of Education, that does not define the general plan of primary instruction, the principles upon which it is to be founded, and the rules by which the commissioners are to be guided in carrying the law into effect.

Before persons can be properly selected for so important a trust, it is indispensably necessary that the nature of the duties they are to perform should be fully understood. Much will depend at all times, but more especially in the first instance, on the

judicious choice of the commissioners. They must not come wholly new to the business; the subject of primary instruction must have long occupied their thoughts; they must not be purely speculative men, but men of practical habits; and they must devote their whole time to the great duty confided to them. There can be no set of men, however learned, who can, at present, possess all the information that is required for the establishment of a proper system of primary instruction in this country. Commissioners of Inquiry must bring together all the knowledge that can be collected from the best conducted schools already existing, and from the experience of individuals in the united kingdom most competent to give advice, and much is to be had if diligent search be made; and they must search for all that can be gathered from the laws and the practice of Germany, Holland, France, and the United States of North America, and from the works of the best authors in those countries on the subject of primary instruction. These Commissioners must be carefully chosen, they must be men capable of constructing a plan founded not only upon sound principles that have been successfully applied, but such a one as shall be suited to the particular circumstances of this country, and be capable of adaptation to local peculiarities; in which it shall not be attempted to obtain



at once all that might be felt to be desirable, but in which some concessions shall be made even to what may be considered prejudices; for, in this matter, these must be gently dealt with; and time and the right working of an improved system, rather than force, must be relied upon for their ultimate removal.

A proceeding very similar to that followed in the case of the Poor Law Amendment Act seems, therefore, to be the most safe and effective course which the legislature can adopt, with a view to the right settlement of this difficult and momentous subject, and it would probably be found, in the end, to be the most speedy. A central board of Commissioners of Inquiry should be appointed; who, having well considered the subject generally, and arranged their course of proceeding, should employ assistant commissioners, properly instructed, to visit all parts of the country. They would ascertain the exact state of each locality with respect to primary schools, and would communicate with persons on the spot capable of giving information; or with those having authority with their neighbours, to whom it might be important that full explanations should be given as to the objects of the inquiry, in order that their co-operation might be secured. An extensive and careful investigation of this nature seems to be indispensable, before any general measure for the es-

tablishment by law of primary schools can be properly laid before parliament; before it can be safe to legislate in any manner on the subject; and before any considerable sum of the public money can be judiciously applied for such a purpose.

We shall now proceed to consider what the principal subjects of such an enquiry ought to be. They may be classed under the following heads: 1st, religious instruction; 2nd, normal schools, including the subjects to be taught, the methods of teaching, the school books, and the school houses; 3rd, the different kinds of schools; 4th, general inspection and local superintendence; 5th, the appointment of, and provision for teachers; and 6th, how the requisite funds are to be provided.

1. *Religious Instruction.*

I place this first in the order of enquiry, and under a distinct head, because it is the greatest difficulty which has to be surmounted. It is quite clear that unless the question of the religious instruction to be given in the primary schools be settled to the satisfaction of reasonable and sincere persons, in the church, and among the leading dissenting bodies, no general measure can pass the legislature; or if it did, could it be carried into effect. No plan which human ingenuity could devise will please those of oppo-

site parties who entertain extreme opinions ; both are, at all times, unreasonable and impracticable ; but although they make most noise, they will not be able to do much harm to the good cause, provided calm, sensible, and truly pious people be satisfied ; those who desire to see the moral condition of the lower orders improved, and sober practical religion prevailing among them. They must constitute the great majority of the nation, whether churchmen or dissenters, whigs or conservatives ; and that deep and strong under-current will silently and steadily advance, in spite of the agitations on the surface of the great tide of public opinion.

It must be a fundamental principle, that religion shall form an essential part of the business of the school, that it shall not be merely recognized, but be made a special branch of instruction, that the children shall receive a Christian education ; due provision being made for those of the Jewish persuasion ; for it must also be a fundamental principle, that no class among the subjects of the realm shall be cut off from the benefit of the education provided by the State. The problem to be solved is, how shall that education be given, without interfering with the principles of any of the religious communities into which Christians are divided in this country ; for it

is also to be assumed, that each of those communities will deem it essential to a true religious education, that the children severally belonging to them be instructed in the particular doctrines of the creed to which their parents or guardians are attached. Special instruction in their religious duties, and in the doctrines of religion, so far as it can be useful to teach doctrinal points to children, is more wanted for those in whose behalf it is proposed to legislate, than for the higher classes. Their parents, even with the best dispositions and the strongest parental feelings, must, in a great majority of instances, be incapable of giving that instruction; they do not possess the requisite knowledge, nor if they did, do they know how to communicate it; neither have they time or opportunity. There is also a very large proportion of the children who attend such schools, who never hear the word of religion, or any thing connected with it, alluded to in their presence, out of school; and as to their acquiring religious principles merely by what they hear in the ordinary services of places of worship, if taken there, it is wholly out of the question. I except of course Sunday schools; but these are schools, and I consider them a part of the system of primary instruction which should be extended; and improved also, by making them more exclusively places for religious education than they generally are at present.

The question, as applicable to Great Britain, is very different from what it was in Ireland. To introduce the system adopted in the government schools of that country is not to be thought of for a moment, as any part of a legislative measure for Great Britain. The great objection urged against that system is, the exclusion of what is termed "the entire Bible;" or as it is sometimes expressed, "the mutilation of the Scriptures." How far that last term is fair, or consistent with Christian charity, we shall not stop to inquire. But the objection is urged not only by members of the Established Church, but by persons among the Protestant Dissenters of every denomination; and, with the exception of the Roman Catholics, all the Christian communities in Great Britain would concur in the use of the Protestant version of the entire Bible in the religious education of the children. The Roman Catholics form, comparatively, a small body in Great Britain, and perhaps a separate provision must be made for the children of that persuasion, as well as for the Jews. If this should necessarily lead to distinct schools, it is an evil to be lamented; but it is unquestionably the lesser evil we have to choose. The separation will of course occasion an increased expense; but that must be considered with reference to the value of the benefit which is to be purchased by it. Thus the introduction or exclusion of the entire Bible need not be a matter of discussion,

if its introduction can be in no degree contrary to the principles of any Protestant Christian community; and if the children of Roman Catholics and of Jews have an opportunity of receiving an education equally good with that provided for all other classes.

The forms of Christianity established by law in England and Scotland constitute the religion of a great majority of the people of Great Britain, and more especially among that portion of the people for whose benefit the contemplated measure is chiefly intended; for, with the exception of the Roman Catholics, the poorer classes of the community form a comparatively small part of dissenting congregations, and particularly in rural districts. When there is an established church, the legislature ought to embrace every fit opportunity of maintaining and extending the just influence of the clergy of that church, as ministers of religion; due regard being had to complete toleration; and as the religious instruction of the children of their congregations is an essential part of their duty, the recognition of the resident established ministers in connection with schools in any manner provided by the State, and which can in any way be considered as government schools, seems to be called for both by consistency and expediency. Great care must, however, be

taken, that the connection be of such a nature that it shall not prevent the free use of the school by children who do not belong to the Established church, in consequence of the introduction of any rule or practice at variance with the religious principles of their parents ; if there is no other school in the place, offering equal advantages as a place of general education, to which the children can be sent. It is surely much to be desired that inducements should be held out to the ministers of religion to take an interest in such schools ; and that the children and their parents should see the influence of their pastor exerted in that way.

The question is almost limited to the consideration, how the children shall receive that part of their religious education which relates to matters of doctrine, according to the tenets of the religious community to which their parents belong. This important preliminary, this foundation, upon which any educational structure we can hope to see reared in this country for general use, must rest, cannot be properly considered by the Commissioners of Inquiry ; it is a matter which must be discussed between the government and the authorities in the two established churches ; and between the government and those persons who are the recognized organs of the great bodies of Protestant Dissenters, of the Roman Catho-

lics, and of the Jews. The government itself must then determine what proposition they will bring under the consideration of parliament.

But even the consideration of this preliminary question cannot be rightly gone into, it certainly cannot be determined, until the parties who are to deliberate upon it have before them a plan of primary instruction complete in all its other parts; for the practicability of the proposed religious instruction can only be judged of when viewed in connection with the rest of the general plan. When the whole scheme is sketched out, in all its details, when we are able to view it, in imagination, in working order, we can then only form a tolerably correct estimate of the adaptation of each particular part to the end in view.

2. *Normal Schools.*

All other improvements in primary schools will be of little avail, unless a systematic plan of training the teachers be established; whereby they shall receive a special professional education, complete in all its parts: this is acknowledged by all who have paid the least attention to the subject. Seminaries for schoolmasters, or normal schools, have existed in Prussia and other parts of Germany for a very long period; for several years past they have formed a regular branch of public instruction in Holland, and

they have been recently introduced in France. The present government in this country, have been reproached for not having already established schools of this description; it has been said, that though it is two years and more since £10,000 were voted for that purpose, nothing whatever has yet been done. But those who so reproach them, do not appear to have sufficiently taken into account the very different position in which a government stands, in a matter of this sort, from any individual or association of individuals. These last may adopt a plan which may be imperfect, without doing much harm; and they are under no public responsibility either for imperfections or for entire failure. But as the establishment of a normal school by government necessarily implies the adoption of some system of instruction preferable to others; as the sanction of government would naturally be appealed to as a proof of its superiority; and as it would, on that account, be more generally followed, even supposing it unconnected with any general legislative measure, the country has a right to expect, that government will not give its sanction to any plan until it has been very maturely considered. Any set of men, for their own credit, and in common prudence, will take care to do that; and no one will surely maintain that the government itself is, at present, in a position to make such a selection. Let us enquire

what are the preliminary points to be settled before a normal school, under the sanction of government, could with any attention to prudence be established; what, in short, are the *NORMÆ* which ought to be followed in the school. They necessarily embrace all regulations relating to the interior management of the school, to all external accompaniments, and to the training of masters. The question of religious instruction, the great difficulty of all, meets us *in limine*; then comes *the mode* of instruction, whether the system of mutual instruction is to be adopted wholly, in part, or at all; what are to be the subjects taught; what the books to be used; what the internal discipline: these are some of the chief heads of enquiry as regards the instruction, and each head embraces a great variety of subordinate considerations. Then as to the masters to be trained, those who are to be the pupils of the normal school: at what age are they to be admitted? What is to be the extent of their previous education, as a necessary condition of admission, and who are to be the examiners as to their qualifications? Are they to be received on probation, or are they to be continued upon the establishment, although it be palpable, after a fair trial, that they never can be made good teachers? What are to be the qualifications for a certificate of competency before they can receive their license to take

charge of a school, and who are to be their examiners ? Are they to be received as day-scholars, or is there to be a boarding establishment ? This last is a question of the highest importance with reference to the moral training of the masters. Are the normal schools to be in great towns or in country situations ? Is there to be a school for practice attached to the normal school, or are other schools to be used for the purpose, and if so, how are they to be connected with the normal school ? Is the training of school-mistresses to form any part of the establishment ; and if so, what distinct arrangements are to be made for them ? It is unnecessary to go into farther details, although there are many important points not touched upon ; for it is obvious that every one of those I have mentioned must be well considered and decided upon, before a normal school under the sanction of the government could be wisely or usefully established ; and can any one venture to say that the government can be prepared to decide upon them without much previous enquiry, without taking up the whole subject ? I have no doubt that these considerations must have presented themselves, when the practicability of establishing a normal school was under deliberation by the government ; and that these are the true, as they are sufficient, reasons why nothing has yet been done.

We recommend those to whom the subject is new,

and who wish to form a just idea of what a normal school embraces, and of the spirit which ought to pervade such an establishment, to read the third chapter in Mrs. Austin's translation of M. Cousin's Report on the Schools of Prussia; and particularly the accounts it contains of the normal schools of *Lastadie*, near Stettin, (p. 171, 2d edition,) and of *Potsdam*, near Berlin, (p. 239.) They will there see that the establishment of a normal school is no light matter, but one which must be set about with the utmost deliberation; and they will also learn how much is yet to be done, in this country, to form the minds of those men on whom the characters and dispositions of the rising generation among our working classes must in a great degree depend.

Let us suppose that the government, yielding to importunities, had agreed to establish a normal school; the probability is that, in the present state of information on the subject in this country, the plan of mutual instruction, the teaching in large numbers by means of monitors, as practised in the Bell and Lancaster schools, would have been adopted. But in doing so, they would have given their sanction to a system which is radically defective, and wholly inadequate either to the intellectual, moral, or religious training of a child, in the opinion of many who have thought most profoundly on the philosophy of teaching, and who have narrowly watched and closely investigated

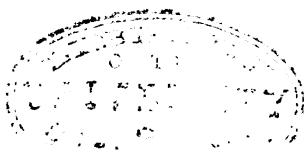
the working and the results of that system. It has been tried and rejected throughout Germany and Holland, the two countries of Europe where the education of children has been the most studied and the most successfully carried into effect; it is rejected by M. Cousin, a profound, cautious, and impartial inquirer, as will be seen in his most recent work on education, that which I have now laid before the English public. Dr. Diesterweg, of Berlin, an experienced schoolmaster, went last year into Denmark, for the special purpose of examining certain schools in that country, where that system is followed, and is much extolled; he has published an account of his journey^a; and although he went with a strong predilection in favour of the plan of mutual instruction, he entirely renounces his former opinion, declaring that, after having thoroughly examined these schools in Denmark, he utterly condemns the system, as reducing the education of the people to mere mechanical repetitions, without any culture either of the heart or of the understanding^b. Many careful observers have long since come to the same conclusion from the experience of the schools

^a *Bemerkungen und Ansichten auf einer pädagogischen Reise nach den dänischen Staaten im Sommer 1836, für seine Freunde und für die Beobachter der wechselseitigen Schuleinrichtung niedergeschrieben.* Berlin, 1836.

^b I state this on the authority of M. Cousin, not having yet seen the book.

conducted on those methods in this country^{*}. It is impossible on visiting a well-conducted school either on the plan of those usually called National Schools, or that of the British and Foreign School Society, without being struck and gratified by the acquirements and dexterity of many of the pupils; and it is difficult to resist being carried away by the *spectacle*; but as a means of a general moral and intellectual training of the whole school, the plan of mutual instruction will not bear examination. Without direct communication between the master and the pupil, there can be no efficient education; and that communication should take place as often as is practicable, within those limits of reasonable expense which must regulate the proportion of teachers to scholars in every establishment of the kind. The systems of mutual instruction, which have unfortunately been so long in vogue in this country, (mainly on account of their cheapness,) have been productive of this evil, that children having acquired, at a very early age, the mechanical power of reading, their parents have considered that their

^{*} See some excellent remarks on this subject in Mrs. Austin's preface to her translation of M. Cousin's reports on Prussian Schools, p. xviii.; see also, the Report on York, by the Statistical Society of Manchester, p. 14; and a pamphlet intitled "Schools for the Industrious Classes," lately published by Taylor and Walton, London.



education was thereby completed; and the poor child has been taken from school, without having learned either those principles or habits that are to make him a more moral or more intelligent being, and without having acquired any taste that will induce him to open a book afterwards. It is notorious that, by disuse, many of the pupils of such schools have in a short time entirely forgotten how to read.

In any general plan for the improvement of primary schools, it is therefore yet to be settled what mode of tuition it would be most advisable to adopt. There are in different parts of the United Kingdom, many admirable schools, which are only partially known, many enlightened schoolmasters, and many persons who have thought profoundly and philosophically on the subject; we have examples before us of schools long established on excellent principles in Germany and Holland; the results of the recent inquiries of the French government are accessible to us; and many valuable books on the subject have been published in this and other countries. If these schools were examined, and these various authorities consulted, by persons duly qualified for the task, there cannot be a doubt that a plan might be constructed from such materials, combining the wisdom and experience of others to the present time, and modified so as to suit the particular circumstances and

habits of this country. The same enquiry would naturally lead to a judicious determination of the subjects to be taught; according to the particular wants of different localities, and according as the primary schools are intended for the children of the indigent, or for those of the working classes.

The subject of school books must form an important branch of the enquiry. A vast number of excellent works of the kind are already in existence, some used in one part of the country and some in another; if these were collected, and examined with the assistance of practical teachers, an extensive catalogue might be constructed, classed for every branch, and in a scale of progression; and those which appeared upon the whole to be the best for the particular purpose, might be distinguished; leaving a wide range for the choice of the teacher, recommending some, but prescribing none. It is possible that in drawing up such a *catalogue raisonné* gaps would occur, which could not be filled up at the time, or only imperfectly so; but individual enterprise would soon give an opportunity of supplying the defects. Those who have been engaged in education know full well how impossible it is to discover what are the best books, and where they are to be met with; and how often it happens that an imperfect book has been long used, from ignorance of the existence of a better.

The form of the school-house, whether it is to consist of one large room or of several small apartments, the fitting up of the interior, and the furniture, must all be adapted to the plan of instruction ; an attention to such details is indispensable for the right working of the machinery of any school.

3. *Different kinds of Schools.*

Primary instruction must embrace Infant Schools, as well as schools for older children, and should be provided for the poor and for the working classes separately. The more the subject of Infant Schools is considered, the more will their utility and the necessity for a general adoption of such schools become apparent. The improvement of a primary school must depend in a great degree upon the establishment of that initiatory branch of education ; and it cannot be considered as complete without such a nursery for its future scholars.

Whether there are to be *gratis* schools for the indigent classes, and if so, upon what conditions the pupils are to be received ; and whether there are to be separate establishments for the poor, or whether the *gratis* scholars are to be mixed with those who pay, are important points to settle.

It would be proper also that there should be primary schools of a better sort for the children of the work-

ing classes, in which the general education should be carried farther than in the *gratis* schools for the poor, and where some higher branches should be taught to those who desire it. An arrangement for evening schools for the benefit of young persons, who have gone to a trade, and yet wish to continue their education, is highly desirable. In all the last mentioned schools, the pupils ought to pay; and the rate of fees must be considered.

It must be kept in mind that there are as many girls as boys to instruct, and that the education which is common to both goes only to a certain point, from which they must proceed in different directions, in order that both may obtain those acquirements which will be most useful to them in their respective spheres. There is no greater preservative against a married man's frequenting the alehouse and getting into idle dissolute habits, than the attractions of a well ordered house; and if his home be made comfortable to him, by a good managing wife, he will rarely seek his enjoyments apart from his family. It is therefore of great consequence that in primary schools the girls should be instructed in as many branches of domestic economy as it is possible to teach in a school, or in places that can be conveniently attached to a school for that purpose.

4. *General Inspection and Local Superintendence.*

No plan of primary schools in which the authority of a Board of Education is to be exercised, will be efficient, or can be prevented from falling into all sorts of irregularities, unless there be a well organized system of inspection; comprehending visits from district inspectors, at intervals not too distant, with reports from them to the board on the state of the schools; local superintendence; and general reports from the board to parliament. Much will depend upon the mode of choosing these inspectors, and the sort of persons selected. Mr. Van den Ende justly observed to M. Cousin on this subject, "Take care whom you choose for inspectors; they are a class of men who ought to be searched for with a lantern in one's hand." It would be difficult to contrive a plan of inspection more sound in principle, or better adapted to work well, than that which is acted upon in Holland; it is fully described in the present publication. Lord Brougham admits the necessity of inspection, for, as has been already noticed, there is a clause in his Bill, giving power to the Commissioners to appoint inspectors. But his Lordship could not have considered the subject in detail, or he never would have proposed a number

so wholly inadequate to the discharge of the duty; for he provides by his Bill, that the number of inspectors must not exceed TEN at any one time. The noble Lord states, in his speech on the 29th of June, that there are at present, in England and Wales, about 40,000 schools; and he considers it necessary that that number should be increased in the proportion of five to three; in which case there would be about 66,000 schools. The 40,000 include others besides primary schools, and some which, it is to be presumed, his Lordship does not intend should be inspected. But, after making a large deduction for this class, if we add the new schools proposed to be established in England and Wales, and a due proportion for Scotland, we cannot, upon these data, suppose a smaller number than 60,000 primary schools, each of which ought to be visited regularly by an inspector. This would give 6000 to each, and supposing it possible for each inspector to visit two schools a day, and that he is engaged in inspection 300 days in the year, suppositions that would hardly be realized, each school under his charge could only be seen by him once in ten years. In Holland, in 1835, there were 2852 primary schools subject to inspection; the ten provinces of the kingdom are divided into *seventy-seven* school districts, to each of which an inspector is appointed, besides local boards of super-

intendence. Thus, each inspector has, on an average, thirty-seven schools under his charge. They are not wholly occupied with the duty of inspection: for Mr. Prinsen, who is inspector of the Haarlem district, is also head-master of the great normal school in that town. What number of primary schools will be required for the whole population of Great Britain, *under an improved system*, it is impossible to say without an actual survey; but 60,000 must be greatly beyond what can be necessary; for at an average of sixty pupils in each school, they would educate 3,600,000 children, and sixty would be a very low average. With a sufficient number of teachers, one school-house, properly divided, might, in large towns, easily educate 300 children.

The establishment of local committees of superintendence would be of the greatest use, not only from the local knowledge which would be brought to bear upon the improvement of primary instruction generally in the district, and in maintaining the schools in good order, but from the immense advantage of interesting the upper and better educated classes in the welfare of their more humble neighbours; and of thus increasing those kindly feelings and sympathies between the upper and lower ranks of society, upon which good order and contentment so much depend. The mode of selecting such com-

mittees, the power ~~with~~ which they ought to be invested, and their connection with the inspectors and the board of Commissioners, would all be important subjects of inquiry.

5. The appointment of, and provision for, Teachers.

Not only must there be normal schools to teach the art of teaching, but the situation of schoolmaster must be placed on such a footing of respectability and security as to induce men of talent and character to choose it as a profession. The emoluments of the teachers of primary schools can never be very high; the best will be less than the wages of skilled labour among mechanics; but if the office be placed in a right position, the superior rank in society of a well educated man, will, in the opinion of many, compensate for the smaller income. Many a curate has not the income of an operative cotton-spinner. The existence of schools of different grades, would hold out hope of advancement to stimulate a young man to exertion; for if he were to distinguish himself as a teacher in one of the humbler schools, he would be sought for to fill a vacancy in a superior. A high character of respectability can only be given, by fixing a high standard of qualification for the office. The facilities afforded by the Scotch universities, would increase the chance of the schoolmasters

in that part of the island being generally better educated; but Mechanics' Institutions, by some suitable arrangements, might probably be made useful in giving that preliminary education which ought to be exacted, before admission to a normal school could be obtained.

It should be well considered, how much of the emoluments of the schoolmaster should consist of fixed salary and lodging, and for what proportion of his emoluments he should be dependent on the fees of his pupils; for to make him wholly dependent on either, would be inexpedient. Justice, not only to the master but to the scholars, demands, that he should not be compelled, for the sake of subsistence, to go on teaching, when he is conscious that he is incapable of doing his duty, from the infirmities either of disease or of old age; and some arrangement for retiring allowances should form a part of any well organized system.

6. How the requisite funds are to be provided.

If to extend and improve primary schools be admitted to be necessary for the general good of the country, it ought not to depend upon a consideration of expense, whether an efficient system should be adopted, any more than is the case in other great departments of the government of the country, in

which the security and welfare of the State make a large expenditure indispensable. Besides, the expense of repressing and punishing crimes that are the fruit of ignorance and of a neglected population, is far greater than would be sufficient to maintain good schools in every part of the country. If there are funds belonging to charitable foundations, which are misapplied, and if these could be turned into this channel, there would be so far a saving to the public purse; but the work ought not to stand still until that resource shall become available. There would be a considerable outlay at first for school-rooms and schoolmasters' houses, and there would be a permanent annual expenditure for masters' salaries, the maintenance of the buildings, school furniture, &c.—and also for the Board of Education, and the inspectors. When an estimate had been made by the Commissioners of Inquiry of the sums required, it would be for the government to consider how much ought to be provided as a branch of public expenditure, and how much by a local rate; and also upon what principle that rate should be levied.

In any scheme of improvement, it is desirable that all existing schools should be made available as much as possible. Interference, except with consent, is however very questionable, at least for a long time to come; and if good schools were established

under the sanction of a public board, individual competition would do a great deal to correct existing abuses; for bad schools would then lose their customers; and it would at all events be proper to see that the evil continued, before any attempt were made to put it down by force.

In addition to these several special objects of inquiry, it would be necessary for the commissioners to attend to the general consideration, how far it would be necessary, for the efficient working of the system, to define the powers of the Board of Education by statute; how far to confer power upon them to issue orders that must receive the approbation of a responsible minister, before they can take effect; and how far a free discretionary power may be safely confided to them. This last must be somewhat extensive, because the great variety of local circumstances will occasion many modifications of any general plan.

When the Commissioners of Inquiry shall have thoroughly investigated all these matters, and shall have had communications, upon the several parts, with persons most competent to give them assistance, they ought to draw up a report, which should contain a plan embracing the whole subject of the extension and improvement of primary schools, throughout Great Britain. That report should be printed by govern-

ment, and sold at a cheap rate, as the reports of the Poor Law Commissioners were. The disseminating powers of booksellers might carry it to individuals capable of giving the soundest advice, of whom the commissioners had never heard, and to places which even diligent search might have accidentally left unvisited. A humble schoolmaster, in a remote Highland village, or in an obscure alley of a great town, may have profound views on the philosophy of education; and might offer important suggestions of general or local application. Full time should be given to have the plan well considered by the public at large, when the imperfections, and the inapplicability of parts to particular localities, which, however carefully prepared, it could hardly fail to contain, would be pointed out. The plan should then be revised by the commissioners, for the purpose of introducing such alterations and amendments as appear to them advisable; and then it should be laid before parliament. With materials before them thus carefully collected, parliament would be enabled to legislate upon this great question on sure grounds; the public mind would be prepared for the general measure; and objections that might be strongly pressed against particular parts, if viewed singly, might be lessened or given up altogether, when ba-

lanced by the advantages which the scheme, as a whole, would be found to possess.

It would be well to consider whether it would be advisable or practicable to limit the application of the measure, at first, to a district of moderate extent; not greater than necessary to give it a fair trial. No plan, however skilfully devised, can be expected to be free from imperfections which actual working brings out; and it would be better to correct such errors before the system was attempted to be brought into operation over the whole island. When it was seen to work well in those situations where the trial was made, other places would be eager to have it introduced; and it would then come with all the advantages of a boon conferred, with prepossessions in its favour, in place of having to contend with those jealousies or hostile feelings, which are sure to meet any measure that has the appearance of being forced.

I cannot conclude these observations, without adverting to two points connected with primary instruction, which have of late been much discussed; I mean those which are commonly called *compulsory education*, and *licensing of teachers*.

No one who has urged the expediency of making

the education of their children obligatory on *all* parents, has ever suggested, as far as I have seen, that the obligation should be enforced by process of law, and by fines or imprisonment; as is the case in Prussia, when other means fail; and yet the proposal has always been met by those who are adverse to it, as if a compulsory measure of this sort had been thought of; and it has of course been maintained that such an infringement of the liberty of the subject is inadmissible. But is such an obligation, in truth, any thing more than an infringement of liberty to do wrong. It has been said, that such a measure would take away the parental care of the offspring from the person to whom nature has committed the charge. This is all very well as a general theory; but is the remark applicable in the present case? Is it not clear that the interference would only take place when there was a want of parental care? We know that there are parents so reckless, that they care not what becomes of their children, provided they can make money by their labour. If a parent neglects to educate his child, he is doing an injury, not only to the child, but to the community, which may grievously suffer by the evil consequence of that child's ignorance; the child is thus deprived of parental care, and being so far an orphan, the State is bound to come

forward as his protector and guardian. If the child could speak with the sense of mature age, would not his earnest entreaty be, "Do not neglect my education—do not deprive me of that which will make me a virtuous and a good man, and will enable me to better my condition in life, by improving the talents which God has given me." Did not the country loudly call for legislative interference with "the parental care," in the case of the factory children?—and is not protection against moral injury as necessary as protection against bodily harm? It may be asked; if there are to be ~~neither~~ fines nor imprisonment, how is the obligation to be enforced? The penalties of *privation of advantages and of privileges* may be made very effective for this purpose; and if the enjoyment of certain privileges and civil rights, if the admission to certain offices and employments, either of honour or profit, were made to depend upon the possession of a certain amount of education, any other kind of compulsion would probably be unnecessary.

A similar objection has been made to the proposal, that no one should be allowed to open a school without a license in proof of his being properly qualified to teach; and, on the same ground too, that it is an infringement on the liberty of the subject. This, however, is also no more than an in-

fringement of a liberty of doing injury to the public and of practising deception. It is a common remark, that if a person has failed in every thing else, and is incapable of earning a livelihood in any other way, he sets up for a schoolmaster; and the number of ignorant, incompetent persons who exercise this calling in every part of the country is a most serious evil. Interference for the protection of the public, and more particularly of the humbler classes, against such impositions, is justifiable on perfectly sound principles of legislation; because those teachers vend a commodity of which a large proportion of the buyers have no means of verifying the quality. A working man, who subjects himself to privations in order to give his children education, has no power of knowing whether the schoolmaster in the next street, the only school, perhaps, to which he can send his children, be a competent teacher or not; and it is lamentable to think what sums of money are lost to the industrious classes in this way. It is, therefore, but justice to them that they should be protected against these losses by some government security, that the persons who open schools, and profess to sell instruction, shall vend a good and genuine commodity, and not that worthless or poisonous trash which the purchaser finds, when it is too late, is all that he has got for his money.

But it will be time enough to consider whether laws ought to be passed to make education generally obligatory, and to prevent unqualified persons from setting up as schoolmasters, when schools have been multiplied and improved, and when the whole subject of primary instruction in this country is better understood, and in a very different state from what it is at present. Until such an improved system has been for some time fairly in operation, any legislative enactments of the sort would obviously be premature.

PREFACE TO THE TRANSLATION

OF

M. COUSIN'S WORK.

IN a conversation which I had last summer with Baron Falck, late ambassador of the King of the Netherlands in this country, he mentioned that M. Cousin had visited Holland, the preceding autumn, for the purpose of inquiring into the general state of education there; that he had been very much pleased with the primary schools; even preferring, in some respects, the system upon which they are conducted to that of Prussia; and that he was engaged in preparing for publication an account of his enquiries. I was not surprised to hear the favourable impression which these Dutch schools had made on M. Cousin; for I had a vivid recollection of the pleasure I had myself experienced when I visited some of them nearly twenty-four years ago. It occurred to me that it would be very useful, at the present time, to make M. Cousin's observations more extensively known to the public in this country than they were likely to be by the original work only; for there cannot be a doubt that the publication of his reports on the primary schools

in Prussia, through the medium of the admirable translation of Mrs. Austin, has been of the greatest service to the cause of popular education here; by shewing the practical working of a most ingeniously contrived and most effective system, and how much we have yet to do, in this great work of national concernment, to place us on a level with other countries inferior to our own in power and in resources.

I lost no time in communicating with M. Cousin, and he was good enough to send me the first complete copy of his book he had received from his printer. The perusal of it fully confirmed my first impression of the utility of translating it, and I did not therefore hesitate to undertake the task; feeling at the same time that such leisure as I should be able to command, from my official occupations, could not be more usefully employed, than in any work which might tend to improve the condition of that large number of children whose welfare I am appointed to look after. Their education is one of the most important parts of the Factories' Regulation Act, and one to which my attention has been particularly directed ever since the law came into operation.

For the reasons stated in the preceding observations, I have confined myself to those parts of the publication of M. Cousin which relate to primary

schools. It contains, besides, much valuable information about the Latin Schools, or Gymnasia, and the Universities of Holland ; and those who take an interest in such subjects will do well to read the original work.

The observations M. Cousin made in the country, and his reflections on what he saw, will be read with great interest by all who desire to see the education of the children of the working classes and the poor in this country rescued from its present imperfect and degraded state ; and his work will supply the most valuable instruction to those in whose hands the important trust of effecting this great national improvement may be placed. It is a national reproach, that so admirable a system should have been going on for so long a period in a neighbouring Protestant country without our profiting by the example. When the schools of Prussia have been held out as an example for our imitation, it has been a common reply, that they may be very well adapted to a country accustomed to an arbitrary form of government, to a people habituated to military rule ; but that such a system would never work well in this free country. But it will be seen that an equally effective system of primary instruction has been going on successfully for many years in Holland, where there is a representative form of government, and where the

people are as jealous of their freedom as we are. A sense of shame for past negligence will, it is to be hoped, stimulate us to greater exertion; make us somewhat less satisfied that we are, in all things, the most enlightened nation on earth; and more disposed to take a lesson from a neighbour, who, in this respect, has shewn himself so much wiser than ourselves.

If there be any persons who entertain doubts of the good effects of education upon the morals of the lower orders of the people, we recommend them to read the account M. Cousin gives of his visit to the penitentiary for male juvenile delinquents at Rotterdam; for they will see some facts stated there which may lead them to alter their opinion. They will find that the number of offenders of that description, including all under eighteen years of age, collected from every part of Holland, who were under confinement in the month of September, 1836, did not exceed *one hundred and fifty*, out of a population of two millions and a half. So small a proportion, seemed to me hardly credible; and although I had great confidence in the accuracy of M. Cousin, I could not help fearing that there might be some mistake; that, owing to his short stay in the country, some circumstance might have been overlooked, which would diminish, in some degree, this triumph of education.

I therefore wrote to a friend at The Hague, who has access to the most authentic sources of information, drawing his attention to what M. Cousin has said on this subject. His answer, which I have just received, confirms, I am happy to say, the accuracy of the statement, as respects the penitentiary of Rotterdam; with this addition, that in the penitentiary at Amsterdam, for female delinquents of the same ages, the number of prisoners at the same period did not exceed *thirty*. My correspondent mentions, however, some circumstances that in some degree affect the question, although, in my opinion, they do not weaken, but rather strengthen the deductions which M. Cousin has drawn, as to the beneficial effects of the primary schools in Holland on the morals of the people. He states,—“This separation and concentration of juvenile delinquents was ordered by a royal decree of the 15th of March, 1833. But to be scrupulously exact, it must be taken into account that, by the same decree, there was an exception allowed in the case of offenders, in other provinces than South Holland, who might be condemned to an imprisonment of *less than six months*; these may be confined in the prisons of the places where they are tried; for it was thought that the charge of removing them would not be compensated by any advantages of education which they could receive in

so short a time. Farther, some juvenile delinquents, in place of being removed to the central penitentiary, are left under the care of a charitable association, for the reformation of young offenders ; the principal committee of this society is at Amsterdam, and they take special charge of the education of these young prisoners in a separate part of the ordinary prison there. Such was the state of matters in 1836. Since that time, things are not worse, but they are somewhat changed ; and that you may rightly understand this, I must enter into some details. According to article 66 of our penal code, when the accused party is under sixteen years of age, if it appear that his guilt has arisen from ignorance, the punishment provided for the crime is not inflicted ; but he is sent, according to circumstances, either to be taken care of by his parents, or to a penitentiary, to be confined and educated there for such a term of years as the magistrate shall think fit. You can well believe that in proportion as the excellent state of organization in the central penitentiary for boys at Rotterdam, and of that for girls at Amsterdam has become more generally known, the magistrates have been more and more inclined to choose the latter alternative allowed by the law ; and this is evidently the principal cause of a recent increase in the numbers in both places : on the other hand, one cannot avoid believing that those whose guilt has *not* arisen

from ignorance are more readily convicted, and are sentenced to a longer confinement than in former years, since the magistrates have felt some assurance that their imprisonment will no longer have the effect of rendering them more depraved, but, on the contrary, will improve their character. Sure it is that within the last few months the commitments to the penitentiary at Rotterdam were so frequent, that they began to be in want of room; and it became necessary to modify the original decree to a certain extent; so that, in future, the central penitentiaries will only receive prisoners of sixteen years of age and under. Those between sixteen and eighteen will not however suffer much injury by the exclusion; for the discipline of the ordinary gaols has been greatly improved by the introduction of schools and by such arrangements for classification, that they will be kept apart from the older prisoners, and will receive a regular education. I can fully confirm all that M. Cousin has said in favour of the school in the penitentiary at Rotterdam; if the young delinquents be well recommended by the schoolmaster, at the conclusion of their term of confinement, they are sought for, in preference, as apprentices by master manufacturers, and as cabin boys by the captains of vessels." Let us now see the contrast which England presents.

It appears from the Second Report of the Inspectors of Prisons, laid before last Session of Parliament, that the number of boys, aged sixteen and under, committed to the gaols in the metropolis alone, in the year 1836, was 8132; and in that part of their report where the inspectors treat of juvenile offenders, (p. 66,) they state: "Those only who have been thus engaged can be aware of the extreme difficulty which exists in procuring suitable employment for boys discharged destitute from prison. The loss of character, and the fact of having been the inmate of a London gaol are almost insurmountable barriers to any favourable settlement in this country."

It will be seen from the following extracts from the same report, what an enormous proportion of the offenders in England and Wales are destitute of education.

I. NUMBER OF OFFENDERS. (P. 448.)

	Males.	Females.	Total.
" The total number of prisoners for trial, or tried at assizes and sessions in the course of the year 1836, was.....	20,213	4,674	24,887
The total number of summary convictions in the course of the year 1836, was..	40,988	12,282	53,270
	61,201	16,956	78,157
Of these, the number under seventeen years of age was.....	7,707	1,413	9,120

II. STATE OF THEIR INSTRUCTION. (P. 457.)

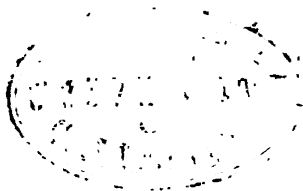
	Males.	Females.	Total.
Of the total number of 78,157 offenders, the state of instruction of 54,928 was ascertained; and it was as follows:—			
Could neither read nor write.....	15,860	4,596	20,456
Could read only.....	8,294	2,351	10,645
Could read or write, or both, imperfectly.....	16,838	3,109	19,947
Might thus be said to have been deprived of all moral training from education	40,992	10,056	51,048
Could read and write well.....	3,508	372	3,880
	44,500	10,428	54,928

M. Cousin makes frequent allusion to a report by Cuvier, in which he gives an account of his public mission to Holland in 1811, for the purpose of inquiring into the state of the schools and other establishments for education there. I procured a copy of this interesting document, and have given a translation of all that part of it which relates to the primary schools; I thought it would be interesting to the English public to see it, not only on account of its intrinsic value, but as a production of that eminent philosopher, different in its nature from any of those on which his fame chiefly rests. There

is, of course, much of what M. Cousin has described; but there is some additional information that is valuable, and there are many reflections which will be read with great interest, displaying the same comprehensive views for which the great naturalist was distinguished, in every thing to which his attention was directed.

L. H.

LONDON, 21 DEC. 1837.



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NARRATIVE
OF MY
JOURNEY IN HOLLAND,
IN SEPTEMBER 1836.

ARRIVAL IN HOLLAND.

I HAD for some time been desirous of visiting Hol- ✓
land, for the purpose of continuing my inquiries into
the different systems of education among the great
civilized nations of the world; and my mind was
full of the Report made by Cuvier in 1811^a. The
obliging communications made to me by the Dutch
Government, had put me in possession of the principal
documents relative to the different institutions in that
country for the education both of the lower and of the
higher ranks, and I had made a complete collection of ✓
the reports, which, in conformity with the fundamental
law, the Government is bound to lay annually before
the States-General, on the several departments of
public instruction.—So prepared, and with the ex-

^a Report on the Establishments of public instruction in Holland,
read to the Council of the University in October and November
1811. See Appendix D.

perience I had already acquired in matters of education, I hoped that a short stay in the country would enable me to ascertain the great features of their system. My plan was to go direct to The Hague, the seat of Government, and there, in the office of the Minister, to study the general organization of the public instruction, and to obtain from competent persons all the explanations of which I stood in need; after that, to travel through the country; to visit Haarlem, Amsterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and Rotterdam; and every where in the course of my journey, to examine the schools for the working classes, the Latin Schools, and the Universities. I was happy also to visit some of my fellow-labourers in the study of the history of Greek Philosophy, and to become a guest in the Platonic School of Wytttenbach. I cherished the hope of meeting at Amsterdam, in the old book establishment of Blaeu, and at Leyden, among the papers of Huygens, some unpublished fragments of Descartes: and—shall I express it?—a secret feeling of gratitude attracted me to a land which, for two centuries, has been the asylum of persecuted philosophers, and where, at another epoch in my life, I was offered a refuge^a.

I left Paris on the 10th of September, accom-

^a In 1826, after my adventure at Berlin, His Majesty the King of the Netherlands proposed to take me into his service.

panied by my faithful fellow-traveller, M. Viguier, Commissioner of Public Accounts. We arrived at Brussels next evening, and at six o'clock the following morning we were on the rail-road between Brussels and Antwerp, and reached that place in an hour and a quarter. We remained two entire days at Antwerp, absorbed in the contemplation of those master-pieces of art of every kind, which are to be seen in the Museum, the Churches, and, above all, in the Cathedral. I do not mean to enact the tourist on the present occasion, but shall only say, that one must go to Antwerp to obtain a just and true conception of the Flemish School; to know Rubens, with whose works the town is filled; his best scholar, Van-Dyck; his master, Otto Vennius, and the master of the last-mentioned, Porbus, and Quintin Matsys, who belongs to the fifteenth century, and therefore to the old school of the Van-Eycks, of which he possesses all the naïveté and the vigour. I also made at Antwerp a discovery of what was before almost unknown to me; I mean the art of executing sculpture in wood. I had seen in the ornaments of many churches in France, and especially at Amiens, carvings in wood of great delicacy, but nowhere before, either in France, in Germany, or in the north of Italy—the only part of Italy however, with which

I am acquainted,—have I seen sculpture in wood, on the great scale, figures as large as life. At Antwerp, in the cathedral, and particularly in the church of St. James, there is a vast number of statues of this description, forming parts of pulpits and confessionals, in admirable grouping. And why, in truth, should not wood be as capable as marble or stone, of giving expression to thought? The greyish tone of the material acquires, as marble does by time, a polish and a brilliancy of tint, which, upon a ground somewhat dark, gives an additional pathos to the sculpture of our Christian churches. Of the Cathedral itself, every one has heard: it has not that richness of external ornament, that profusion of details, which we admire in many other cathedrals; as for example, that of Notre Dame in Paris;—but the Notre Dame of Antwerp has an incomparable spire, almost as lofty, and more elegant than that of Strasbourg. The latter is a *tour de force*, which rather detracts from its merits as a work of art, at least in my eyes. The spire of Antwerp is perfect in proportion and in grace: it rises with lightness and at the same time with strength, and produces an effect at once grand and serene. The ancient towers of our cathedral, reared in the darkness of the twelfth century, have doubtless a degree of majesty, which no one can feel more strongly

than I do, who was baptized in Notre Dame, and brought up within the shadow of its walls; but as a work of art, there is no comparison between the two temples: the mass and heaviness of the one seem to press to the earth the poor mortal creature who has fallen on his knees beneath its arches; whereas the other raises him up, and carries him aloft with her, on the wings of prayer and of hope, to the region of peace.

The most advantageous view of Antwerp is from this tower. You there see spread out before you the harbour, the great basin, excavated by Napoleon, the Exchange, the Osterlingen^a, all the churches, which seem to encircle the cathedral, like daughters around their mother, and the majestic course of the Scheldt winding to the Northern Ocean; which made Antwerp, in former days, one of the greatest entrepôts of the world.—But time presses, and we must hasten to quit Belgium and get into Holland.

We left Antwerp for Rotterdam on the 14th, where we arrived the same night, by way of Breda and Dordrecht or Dort. At Breda there is a tomb of Engelbert II.^b and his wife, which has four

^a An extensive edifice, formerly the factory of the Association of Merchants of the Hanseatic League, who were called the Osterlings.—Tr.

^b Count of Nassau, and a favourite general of Charles V.

statues, said to be a work of Michael Angelo. I do not very well see how works of the great Florentine artist should have found their way to Breda, and there is a heaviness in the execution which leads me to doubt their authenticity. In passing through this town I could not help saying to myself, "there, perhaps at the corner of that very street, was posted up the announcement of the mathematical problem which a young French officer in the service of Holland, in garrison here, getting a neighbour to read it to him, immediately solved." This young officer was the future author of the application of algebra to geometry. The thought of Descartes took possession of me from the time of my entering Holland, and never left me.

We had a stormy passage from Moerdyk to Willemsdorp, and arrived at night at Dort, the town of the celebrated Synod. Some leagues farther on we again got into a boat, about eleven at night, which brought us to Rotterdam. Owing to the lateness of the hour, and the badness of the weather, we had some trouble in finding a boat, and the passage was longer and more unpleasant than usual. Our two boatmen talked together in the language of the country, not one word of which we understood. I amused myself with thinking on the adventure of Descartes, who, in crossing some river or other in

Holland, overheard the sailors conversing, and understanding their language, discovered that they had some evil design upon him, and were even meditating to throw him overboard. He drew his sword, and going right up to them, swore he would run them through, if they shewed the least symptom of attacking him. An adventure nearly of the same sort happened to Leibnitz in Italy, on the Adriatic. Having been overtaken by a storm, he heard the Italian sailors attributing the tempest to him, as a heretic, and deliberating among themselves whether they should throw him into the sea. Leibnitz, without seeming to have overheard them, drew forth from his pocket a rosary, which he happened to have about him, and thus removing all doubts from the minds of the sailors as to the orthodoxy of his faith, saved the author of the *Theodicea* from the violence and folly of man. In the contrast which these two great men exhibited, in circumstances so similar, we may recognize the whole difference of their characters, their philosophy, and their nations: in the one, that intrepid instinctive feeling, that *furia Francese*, which gives birth to revolutions; in the other, the wisdom which brings them to a termination, and which rises superior to all opinions, by knowing how to understand them, and to assign to them their just value. What should I myself have done, if, at that time of night, these two

peaceable boatmen, who were muttering together, had taken it into their heads, to serve me in the same fashion? Fifteen years ago, I should have done as Descartes did; but now, I should have imitated the example of Leibnitz. But thank God, I was not put to the trial; and while I was musing on these things, we reached the magnificent harbour of Rotterdam. I passed through the town in the dead of the night, while all were in deep repose; and I made for the Hotel d'Angleterre, in the market-place, opposite to the statue of Erasmus, to which I made my obeisance before going to bed.

Next morning, the 15th, we left Rotterdam without seeing any one; and passing through the pretty town of Delft, the birth-place of Grotius, and where the first Stadtholder lies buried, we arrived at The Hague about ten o'clock.

THE HAGUE.

THE Hague, the seat of the Dutch government, is a large and handsome town of about 50,000 inhabitants. We may consider it as divided into two parts, one of which is occupied by tradespeople; the other by the court, by those connected with the government, and by the foreign ambassadors. The whole of this part of the town is very agreeable: handsome streets, large squares, or open spaces, planted with fine trees; but without any remarkable public monument. Neither the old nor the new royal palace, nor the town-house, nor even the great church, with the tomb of the Admiral Van Wassenaer, arrest for a moment the attention of a traveller coming from Antwerp.

We paid the accustomed visit to Scheveningen, a fishing village by the sea-side, a short league from The Hague. In the one you have the tranquillity of civilized society, in the other, the storms of the ocean; and thus half an hour suffices to procure the pleasure of this contrast. The cleanliness of this fishing village is celebrated, and it is the model of a Dutch village on the coast. Near to The Hague, on the road to Leyden, there is a wood of forest trees, three quarters of a league long, and a quarter of a league

wide. Neither the Champs Elysées of Paris, nor the Thiergarten of Berlin, nor the Jardin-Anglais of Munich, convey an idea of this charming promenade, so varied in the forms of the ground, and in the prospects to be seen from it. Nearest the town, it is a park, stored with all kinds of animals; near the road, there are regular avenues of lofty trees, and, farther off, a forest in a wild state, deep and massive, where you may fancy yourself a hundred miles from civilized life; then, all of a sudden, an opening gives you a view of the spire of the great church of The Hague, or, looking over the sand hills which skirt the shore, (the *dunes*,) of some ships ploughing the waves. At the farther extremity of the wood, there is a great pavilion, called the House in the Wood, (*'T Huys in den Bosch*,) in which the great hall is covered with allegorical paintings, representing events in the history of Prince Frederick Henry, the pacificator of the United Provinces, who died in 1647.

The mention of these paintings brings me back to The Hague and to the Royal Museum. The collection of pictures here and that in the Museum of Amsterdam, are the most considerable in the Netherlands. The gallery at The Hague is very rich, even in the works of foreign masters. I would willingly have carried off to our Paris gallery three charming

pictures of our truly national school in the 17th century ; a Poussin, a Claude Lorraine, and a Bourguignon. I found excellent specimens of all the schools of Italy ; of the Spanish School, several by Velasquez, and two beautiful Murillo's, one of which, a Madonna, is in no degree inferior to those of Raphael, but quite of a different character. The Spanish Madonna has not the charm of the Italian, that union of dignity and reserve, which expresses both the virgin and the mother ; but it breathes a grandeur and a majesty which belong only to the mother of our Saviour. The German school is represented by several pieces of Durer and Holbein, all of which are portraits ; and they are doubly precious on that account. It was natural to expect that we should find at The Hague several masterpieces of the Flemish school ; among these, there are four by Rubens, two of which are portraits of Catherine Brandt, the first wife of the great artist, and of Eleanor Forman, his second wife, and five by Van Dyck, one of them being a group of the whole family of Huygens. But what I most sought after, and examined with most care, were the pictures of the genuine Dutch masters ; and it is there we must go to study that school. If Antwerp made me acquainted with Rubens, it was at The Hague and at

Amsterdam that I was taught to understand Rembrandt.

After the Royal Museum, a visit to the private gallery of Baron Verstolk Van Soelen, at present the minister for foreign affairs, ought not to be omitted; particularly for the sake of his collection of engravings, one of the richest in Europe; not only among those of private individuals, but even among public collections. I also saw, at the house of a painter in the town, several specimens of old carving in wood of considerable merit, which I would gladly have bought and carried with me to Paris.

But it was time to turn to the proper object of my journey, and to occupy myself with the general organization of public instruction in Holland, for it was that which brought me to The Hague. I reckoned upon finding at the seat of government many documents which would be new to me; and especially that assistance which was necessary to enable me rightly to understand them. I relied particularly on the kindness of Baron Van Doorn, the Minister of the Interior, who had already sent me all the papers which I had applied for. But, unfortunately, the king was not at The Hague, and the Minister of the Interior was in Germany. Thus, at my very entrance into the country, I should have

been disappointed in all my schemes, and in all my hopes, if Baron Mortier, my colleague in the Chamber of Peers, and our ambassador at The Hague, had not come to my assistance; by introducing me to the man of all others in Holland who could be of most use to me, and with whom I was most desirous of conversing, not only on the subject of public instruction, but on every thing else; I mean the Baron Falck.

That name is one of the most respected in the present day in Holland; nor is unknown in the rest of Europe. The mind of Mr. Falck is eminently adapted for political affairs, and he was for several years Minister of Public Instruction: I could not therefore address myself to any individual more likely to assist me in my endeavours to acquire a thorough knowledge of the principles upon which the public institutions for education in Holland are founded. As for the details, and the manner of carrying the principles into execution, I intended to see and judge for myself; but to obtain a general view, to understand the laws by which it is regulated, it was necessary for me to have a guide; and I found one in Mr. Falck. But education has relation to all things; and even when speaking with him about primary schools, gymnasia, and universities, it was not difficult for me to discover the cast of his mind,

and its political bias. I am well aware that reserve on my part is proper on every account, but I trust that I am not erring in that respect, in thus openly expressing the profound esteem which Mr. Falck inspired. He is, in my mind, one of the very small number of those existing in the present day in Europe who are truly entitled to the appellation of statesmen; and he would not be out of place at the head of affairs in any country of the world. He rendered more eminent services to the king upon his return to Holland than any other individual. He was, at first, Secretary of State, then Minister of Public Instruction, and afterwards ambassador in London. He held that situation at the revolution of 1830, but gave it up some years ago, at the conclusion of the conference; and he now resides at The Hague, in high consideration as a minister of state, but without any special employment. Mr. Falck is a true Dutchman, and possesses the good qualities of his countrymen in an eminent degree. Those which I at once recognized in him were, a straightforward, firm, and sound judgment; more force than pliancy of character, and great self command. He belongs, evidently, to the old school of John de Witt, and is devotedly attached to the honour and permanent interests of his country. He does not like, nor can he like, the revolution of July, and France as it now is;

but his mind is far too liberal, and his sagacity far too profound, not to be able to distinguish what is possible from what is no longer so. In political opinions he appears to me to be a liberal of the class of Niebuhr and Savigny ; at once a patriot and an aristocrat, in the elevated sense of these two words ; as a philosopher, he belongs to the school of Hemsterhuis and Wytttenbach ; in religion he is an anti-methodist. His opinions on public instruction are quite in accordance with the existing laws on that subject. He is a great advocate for normal primary schools ; and in the education of the higher ranks, a decided friend of the long established study of the classics. But I perceive that, without intending it, I am giving way to the pleasure I experience in drawing a portrait, which may perhaps offend the modest dignity of Mr. Falck ; I must beg him to forgive an error, which the sentiments he has himself inspired, have betrayed me into.

While Mr. Falck was kindly giving me all the explanations I asked of him, my lucky star brought back the Minister of the Interior, exactly at the time when I could no longer get on without the aid of several official documents ; and he had the kindness to communicate them to me in the most obliging manner possible. He did even more, for he placed at my disposal, if I may be allowed so to express my-

self, the services of a gentleman in his office, who may be almost said to direct the public instruction, Mr. Wynbeck, the Inspector of the Latin and the Primary Schools. I took full advantage of, I fear I almost abused, the kindness of that estimable public functionary ; for I occupied his whole day, either in talking with me, in finding papers for me, or in visiting the schools in the town. Mr. Wynbeck was to me at The Hague what Mr. Schulze had been at Berlin ; and I beg him, as well as the Minister of the Interior, to accept of this public expression of my gratitude.

Although my chief occupation at The Hague was to study the general system of public instruction, I also visited some of the schools there. A town of 50,000 inhabitants could hardly be without schools of different kinds of primary instruction, or without a Grammar School. Accompanied by Mr. Wynbeck, I visited the latter, which they call the Latin School, and several primary schools of different kinds. I did not examine any thing very closely, for I was then only taking a cursory view of the schools, in order to form some sort of acquaintance with their external physiognomy ; reserving a minute and detailed examination for other places, where I should find examples of each kind of school, conducted upon the most approved plan. Thus, for the highest depart-

ment of education, I had to see the Universities of Utrecht and Leyden ; and for the next stage, I intended to examine, and specially so, the Latin School of Utrecht, as it is in high repute. For the primary schools, I had to visit Haarlem, as it is there that the best normal school in Holland is to be seen ; to see the Infant Schools at Zwolle or at Rotterdam ; and, at Amsterdam, the schools for the indigent classes, which, in Holland, as well as in Germany, are called Schools for the Poor (*Armen Scholen*). I had to examine, besides, at Utrecht, a primary school of a higher description, which they call a French School, because the distinguishing feature of it, and the mark of its superiority is, that they teach the French language. Between the gratis primary school, called the School for the Poor, (*Armen-School*), and the superior primary school, called the French School, (*Fransche-School*), the expense of which is often considerable, there is the Intermediate School, (*Tusschen²-School*), so called because it is neither absolutely gratis nor very expensive ; the pupils pay little, but still they must pay something. I was told that I should find these intermediate schools in all the towns of any importance in Holland, and almost every where in the same state. I paid a hasty visit

* *Tusschen* Dutch for *between* ; in German, *Zwischen*.

to schools of these different descriptions at The Hague.

At The Hague, there are four schools for the poor; and Mr. Wynbeck took me to the largest of them. It contained a thousand children, from five to twelve years of age: they pay absolutely nothing; all that is required of them is, that they come well combed, well washed, and as clean as their poverty will allow. These thousand children were collected in two large school-rooms, 700 on the ground floor and 300 above: without any distinction as to sex or religion. It was one of those schools which made so great an impression on Cuvier, on his first arrival in Holland.

To satisfy me that, in this school, children of every religious denomination are received, which is also the case in all the other schools, Mr. Wynbeck passed along several of the benches, asking each child to tell him aloud to what congregation it belonged. There were on the same bench children of every Christian communion, with their various shades of difference; Catholics, Calvinists, Lutherans, Remonstrants, and Anabaptists; and Jews were mingled indiscriminately with Christians. I had, in this school, an anticipation of what I should find throughout Holland; that entire toleration which pervades it in every part.

Another peculiarity in this school is remarkable,

viz. the bringing together of boys and girls in the same room, and even allowing them sometimes to sit on the same bench. There are eleven masters; a head-master, some under-masters, and several assistants, and, among the latter, some apprenticed assistants. The assistants are from fifteen to twenty years of age, the under-masters are somewhat older, and the head-master is a grave personage of mature years. Having so large a number of masters shows that the instruction is not mutual, but simultaneous: the system of Pestalozzi is generally acted upon. I heard several of the children examined, in the different divisions of this large school; and I was particularly pleased with the manner in which those in the most advanced class sang a national hymn; which appeared to me of a simple and noble strain, and peculiarly appropriate in a school for the lower orders.

This school is in very good order; nevertheless, 700 children in one room, although they may present a very gratifying sight, cannot, easily, be well governed; and when one of the divisions is at work, it always disturbs the division next to it more or less. I should prefer a school that did not contain more than from three to four hundred, with a master for every hundred scholars. I learned with pleasure

that the three other schools for the poor at The Hague are less numerous than this one.

The children of the indigent classes continue at these schools until they are twelve or thirteen years of age, when they are sent to a trade; but they are not then lost sight of, for they are invited to continue their attendance in the evening, until they are sixteen; by which means they not only keep up but enlarge the store of knowledge they had acquired. I asked how many of those who had ceased to be day scholars attended the evening school, and I was told that nearly one third do. These evening classes are, like our schools for adults, organized on a rational plan.

Besides the four gratis schools, which are maintained at the expense of the town, there are some other public schools, called Intermediate, in which the scholars pay for their instruction. I visited a school of this description, and found the plan of teaching nearly the same as that in the Poor-School; except that the sexes are not together, and that there was a separate room for the different classes. I also visited a French School, where the instruction is carried farther, and where the fees are such that the better classes of tradespeople send their children to them, without the fear of their being associated with

those of the poor. In this school, not only are the boys and girls separated, and the different classes taught in different rooms, but each room and each class contain a smaller number of pupils; which admits of the master giving a little individual teaching, along with the simultaneous instruction. The upper division in this school was really far advanced, and I heard a lesson in French and in orthography, in which children of twelve and thirteen years of age showed that they had acquired a very solid acquaintance with our language.

My object in these first visits was merely to get ✓ somewhat familiar with local circumstances, to naturalize myself, as it were, among the schools of Holland. I had now to set about a minute examination of some of the great establishments of public instruction in different parts of the country. I determined to go first to Haarlem, to see the Normal Primary School there; and, at the same time, some of the village schools in North Holland. But in contemplating this journey to the northern provinces of the kingdom, I felt very strongly the disadvantages I should labour under in losing my excellent guide at The Hague, Mr. Wynbeck: and I was not a little uncomfortable at the idea of going alone into the remote parts of North Holland, among schoolmasters who might not understand French,

and I myself unable, from entire ignorance of the language of the country, to ask the pupils a single question, or to converse with the masters; whereby I should be limited to a view of the mere exterior of things, which, in matters of public instruction, is perhaps more deceptive than any thing else. My fears, however, were soon dispelled, by the liberality of the government. On the eve of my departure from The Hague, Mr. Wynbeck called upon me, and, after expressing his regret that he himself could not accompany me, informed me that by the desire of the Minister of the Interior, Mr. Schreuder, the Inspector of the district of Gouda, formerly head-master of the normal school at Lierre, a highly educated man, well acquainted with the French language, and thoroughly conversant with every thing relating to primary schools, had been brought to The Hague, and had been appointed to accompany me every where; to be my guide, to introduce me, and to act as my interpreter. Such an act of considerate attention needs no comment: to make it known is quite sufficient.

On Monday morning the 19th of September, I set out with Mr. Schreuder for Haarlem, and arrived there the same evening, after passing half a day at Leyden.

HAARLEM.

THIS was one of the principal objects in my journey, for it was here that I expected to see, and wished to study, the only kind of establishment of education which was not in existence at the time of Cuvier's visit,—a normal primary school. ✓

In 1811, schoolmasters were trained in the same way as they now are generally: in all the public schools, those children are selected who show the most intelligence; they are kept somewhat longer, and are trained for their future destination by special instruction in the evening, and particularly by employing them in the different classes in succession; at first as assistants, with a very small remuneration; and then as undermasters, with a better allowance; until they are placed at the head of a school, when a vacancy occurs. That method of educating teachers for the primary schools is still practised, and it is, in some respects, an excellent one. They are trained at a very moderate expense, and farther, they are not made more than schoolmasters; they are not taught more than is necessary for their profession. Brought up in school, they ac-

quire the habits of the place, they become attached to it, and cheerfully pass their whole life in it; whilst masters who are reared at a greater expense, and with more refined cultivation, run the risk of becoming less suited to the hard life that awaits them, take to it only when they can do no better, and quit it for something else as soon as they possibly can. These are the advantages of the system, but it has also great disadvantages. It is very apt to engender habits of routine; every defect which has got into the school takes root; the scholar, and future teacher, adopts blindly at first, and afterwards follows, with interested minuteness, the whole manner of the master on whom all his hopes depend; and thus, generation after generation of teachers may succeed, without one step in the way of improvement having been made. It is no doubt very important that the young schoolmasters should not look forward to any other profession; but neither must they be kept bound to the soil of the school: their minds and their feelings must be cultivated; they must be taught to take enlightened views, and be made capable, in their turn, of enlightening the minds of others; and their manners, although they may not be elegant, must at least be correct; the institution under their care will thus obtain a higher degree of consideration; they will secure for themselves greater authority as masters;

and they will establish a better relation between the schoolmaster, the authorities, and the families of the place. Hence the establishment of normal schools: they have long prevailed every where in Germany, but had not made their way into Holland when Cuvier visited the country, and made his report upon its schools. Thus, without being absolutely opposed to normal primary schools, my illustrious colleague in the Royal Council of Public Instruction was disinclined to them, and preferred the old, and, as it seemed to him, judicious method, of which he had seen such good results in 1811. For myself, I was always an avowed partisan of the *Seminarien für Schullehrer* of Germany; I attach the greatest importance to normal primary schools, and consider that all future success in the education of the people depends upon them. Cuvier could not now cite Holland as an example; for in perfecting her system of primary instruction, normal schools were introduced for the better training of masters. The Government were cautious not to lay aside the old method, which was very good, but at the same time that they continued it, they established in 1816 two normal schools, one at Haarlem for the northern part of the kingdom, the other at Lierre, near Antwerp, for Belgium. One had already been instituted at Groningen, under the auspices of the Society for

the Public Good, (*Tot nut van 't Algemeen*^a), and it is now generally admitted that these new institutions have been eminently useful. All the school inspectors whom I met with in the course of my journey, assured me that they had brought about an entire change in the condition of the school-master; that they had given the young teachers a feeling of dignity in their profession, and had thereby introduced an improved tone and style of manners, which had proved of singular advantage to the schools. Experience therefore, even in Holland, is all on my side, and indeed I consider the problem as solved. This however depends upon two conditions, without the observance of which I quite admit that normal schools would do more harm than good: *first*, that in giving the young teachers a higher degree of education than they would ordinarily receive in any primary school, care be taken to maintain in the normal school such strictness and severity of discipline, as shall best prepare the young men for their future laborious duties; and *secondly*, that it shall be essentially practical; that the theory of teaching, and the application of the theory, shall go on simultaneously.

I was extremely desirous, therefore, of seeing a

^a For an account of this Society, which has done so much for primary instruction, see Cuvier's Report, p. 12, and Appendix D.

normal primary school in Holland, and of judging for myself, how far they had succeeded in preserving the advantages of the old method in connection with those of the new. The school at Groningen is situated at the extremity of the kingdom, beyond the Zuyder Zee; it is not supported entirely by the state, although it receives some assistance; but that at Haarlem, in the centre of Holland, is altogether a government establishment. It was founded in 1816, and has had time to settle into form, to develope its powers, and to show what it is capable of accomplishing. The reputation of its head master is very great all over the kingdom: Mr. Prinsen, whom Cuvier noticed in his report as an excellent instructor, and as the author of some valuable works on the art of teaching, (*pædagogie*), is considered as the very model of a schoolmaster. This normal school had the further advantage of having been formed by the care, and under the eye, of Mr. Van den Ende, the Inspector-general of Primary Instruction; who, with the celebrated Oriental scholar, Mr. Van der Palm^a, is looked up to in Holland as one of the fathers of the education of the

^a Professor of Oriental Languages in the University of Leyden, a profound and eloquent divine, author of a translation of the Bible with notes, and of many other valuable works, and who has long been one of the greatest living ornaments of Holland.—Tr.

people. I remembered well with what warm expressions of regard Cuvier had spoken to me of Mr. Van den Ende; and I had a great desire to converse with a man of so much experience in a subject so interesting to us both. It must not be forgotten, too, that Mr. Schreuder, my guide, had been himself head master of the normal school at Lierre; so that I had every means of thoroughly investigating and of judging of the merits of that at Haarlem.

Mr. Van den Ende is far advanced in life, and at the time of my visit was very much cast down by a domestic affliction which had recently occurred. He resigned his office in 1833, and when I saw him, he was contemplating to leave Haarlem, and spend the remainder of his days in the country. I could only see and converse with him once; but my interview was a long one, and our conversation was full and unrestrained. He was sensibly affected at the object of my visit to Holland, and said to me with some emotion, "Sir, you find me in the same room in which I received M. Cuvier five-and-twenty years ago." He learned from me with great satisfaction that Cuvier had left a brother who is a zealous friend of the education of the people, and is thoroughly conversant with the subject. I found that he was acquainted with my publications on the schools of Prussia, and with what we have been doing in

France since 1830. If I had wanted any encouragement to perseverance, in spite of all obstacles, in the career upon which I have entered, I should have found it in the discourse of this venerable old man. He put me in mind by his tall figure, the expression of his countenance, the sound of his voice, and the kindness of his manner, of another old man whom I dearly loved,—Mr. Jacobi^a.

From the fear of fatiguing Mr. Van den Ende, I only touched upon a few of the points upon which I wished to avail myself of his experience: among these, the question, how the subject of religious instruction was dealt with in the primary schools, I considered the most important. Mr. Van den Ende replied, “Yes, certainly, as a general rule, the primary schools must be Christian, but neither Catholic nor Protestant. They ought not to belong to any particular church, nor ought they to teach any separate creed: nothing ought to be admitted which tends to produce a division of the schools, we ought not to have either special Protestant or special Catholic schools; a school for the people ought to be for the whole of the people.”—“Yes, you are right, the school must

^a For an account of this virtuous and ingenious philosopher, see Tennemann’s *Geschichte der Philosophie*, or in the French translation, *Manuel de l’Histoire de la Philosophie*, t. ii. p. 330.

be Christian, that is indispensable: but toleration is not indifference. A moral feeling and a religious spirit must be awakened in the children, by a proper selection from the historical parts of the Bible, and care must be taken to mix up a religious feeling with every species of instruction: it should be traced in the reading lesson, the writing lesson, and the instruction in history."—"I do not approve of the master teaching particular religious creeds; that belongs to the ministers of the several sects, out of school. I admit that, in certain cases, the master makes the children repeat the catechism, but even that is attended with inconvenience."—"You are in Holland, where a Christian spirit is widely disseminated, but where, at the same time, a great degree of toleration has existed for centuries, among the members of different communions." Thus the principle of Mr. Van den Ende on this fundamental point, is to maintain an earnest Christian spirit in the school, but not to allow the introduction of any religious dogma. He went even so far as to dread the official interference of the curate or pastor in the inspection of the school; a species of superintendence to which they attach great importance in Germany, and upon which I myself have laid great stress.

We spoke afterwards of the inspection of the


schools, and of the mode of effecting it. He said, "Nothing else will do, except inspectors specially appointed." He expressed great regret that our law of 1833 did not establish special inspectors, to be named by the Government, as they are in Holland and Germany, and as I recommended in my report on primary instruction in Prussia; and he was much pleased when I told him that the defect had been afterwards corrected, and that we now have an inspector of primary schools in every department. He was quite delighted with the intelligence, but said, "Take care whom you choose for inspectors: they are a class of men who ought to be searched for with a lantern in one's hand." He was gratified by the high terms in which I spoke of the admirable system of having provincial boards of commissioners of primary instruction. These boards meet three times a year, in the chief town of the province, and are composed, not of amateurs and benevolent philanthropists, but of the different school-inspectors of the several districts into which the province is divided. These inspectors are public officers, in whose hands the whole system of primary instruction is virtually placed, for their duty being to superintend the schools, they have the means of finding out those children who show a greater than ordinary capacity, and who may become

assistants, or be sent as pupils to the normal schools; they see them again on the occasion of their attending the examinations as to proficiency, which are intrusted exclusively to the inspectors; and again when they become candidates for some situation, which is invariably settled by a competition, at which an inspector always presides; and they meet with them afterwards at the periodical assemblies of the schoolmasters, where an inspector likewise takes the chair; and in short, they never lose sight of them during their whole career.

He asked me how we got on with our system of mutual instruction. "Do you expect," he said, "that by such a mode of tuition, the instruction given in the primary schools will ever form men? for that in truth, is the real purpose. The different things taught in school are but means, and their whole value depends upon the degree of relation they bear to that object. It never will be attained, unless the system of mutual instruction be given up; it does very well for the purpose of conveying a certain amount of information, but it will never *educate* the pupil; and, I repeat it, education is the object of all instruction."

It may be imagined with what satisfaction I listened to such sentiments, coming, as they did, from the mouth of so competent a judge as Mr. Van den

Ende. "Nothing is more clear," I replied, "and both as a philosopher and a moralist, I maintain that simultaneous teaching (individual tuition being unattainable) is the only method that is suitable for the education of a moral being; but I am obliged to confess it, the system of mutual instruction is still popular in France, to a degree that is truly lamentable." "How does that happen," he said, "in a nation so intelligent as yours?" "From a fatal circumstance," I replied, "the consequences of which still continue. Under the restoration, the Government tried to place the primary schools in the hands of the clergy, and the resistance made to that scheme carried things to the opposite extreme. Some well meaning persons, but men who did not look below the surface of things, and were utter strangers to the subject of public instruction, having by chance visited some of those semi-barbarous manufacturing towns of England, where, for want of any thing better, they are too happy to have Lancasterian schools, mistook for a masterpiece of perfection, that which is only the infancy of the art of teaching; and were dazzled with the exhibition of vast numbers of children taught by one master, assisted only by little monitors, chosen from among the pupils themselves. Seeing children thus governed by children, they found a species of self-government, which they thought would be a



useful preparation for the infusion of the democratic principle ; and as it is obvious that a Christian education is impossible under such a system—for what monitor, even of twelve years of age, can give instruction in religion and morals ?—they saw that the religious education amounted to nothing, unless the dry repetition of a catechism, such as we might expect to find in Portugal or Spain, can be called by that name ; and this they viewed as a triumph over the clergy. Other persons were pleased with the system on account of its cheapness, and then, the eye was caught by the mechanical order and precision in the school exercises ; the children went through their evolutions, according to a signal given by a child, as the different parts of the machinery in a factory are set in motion by a crank. This mechanical instruction was set up, in opposition to the Church schools of the restoration : thus one extreme produces another ; the domination of churchmen and despotism have equally unfavourable tendencies. Unhappily, the system of mutual instruction survived the struggles which preceded the revolution of 1830, but simultaneous instruction is gradually making progress, and the eyes of honest and disinterested persons will be opened.” I added, that I had not met with a single schoolmaster in Germany, who was favourable to the system of mutual instruction ; and

that I had not seen one school so conducted, either at The Hague, or at Leyden. "Nor will you," replied Mr. Van den Ende, "in any other part of Holland ;" a remark in which he was fully supported by Mr. Schreuder, to whom he appealed for the truth of it. "And this by no means arises," he continued, "from our not being sufficiently acquainted with that system ; we have studied it well, and it is because we have studied it, that we have laid it aside. The Society ✓
for the Public Good, with which you must be well acquainted from the report of M. Cuvier, gave a prize for the best essay on the advantages and disadvantages of the two systems ; and in the work to which the prize was awarded, the system of mutual instruction is analysed in its most minute details, and is proved to be unsound on every point which bears upon education in the proper sense of the term, the authority of the master, and the proper lessons to be inculcated. Mr. Visser, a school inspector, was the author of that Essay." *

* Mr. Visser was one of the best inspectors of the primary schools in Friesland, and is mentioned by Cuvier in his report. He died in 1826. His work well deserves being translated ; the following are the title and principal heads of it :—

✓
Essay on the Subjects of Instruction required in Schools for the Poor, and on the best Methods of Teaching ; with a Comparison of these and the Bell-Lancaster System.

I should have been glad to have put more questions to Mr. Van den Ende, but the good old man

✓ Part First. Of the subjects of instruction absolutely necessary in schools for the poor.

Part Second. Advantages and disadvantages of a higher education in elementary schools.

Part Third. On the best methods of teaching in schools for the poor.

CHAPTER FIRST OF PART THIRD.

CHARACTERISTICS OF GOOD EDUCATION.

1. Reading and writing; methods of Lancaster, of Prinsen, of Nieuwold. 2. Arithmetic; methods of Lancaster and Pestalozzi. 3. Morals and Religion;—Chief end in this instruction, the gradual development of good morals and of piety; beginning with awakening a religious and moral feeling, love and confidence; short exhortations, conversation, and then the farther development of religious and moral sentiments; advantages of the schoolmaster over the pastor; finally, instruction in the Bible and catechism. 4. Singing. 5. Other subjects of instruction.

CHAPTER SECOND.

ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL.

1. The school-house. 2. The furniture. 3. Classes and divisions. 4. Masters, Assistants, Monitors.

CHAPTER THIRD.

DISCIPLINE.

The objects in the discipline of a school are: 1. The regular attendance of the pupils. 2. The maintenance of a right spirit in the school; confidence, love. 3. The advancement of the pupils. 4. The correction of faults. 5. To habituate the pupils to good conduct.

CHAPTER FOURTH.

1. The time necessary for the education. 2. Number of the

was beginning to be fatigued, and I did not prolong the conversation. I look upon Mr. Van den Ende as one of the men in all Europe who have done the most to promote the education of the people, and I took leave of him with the sorrowful feeling that I should probably never see him again, and with deep regret that I had not known him sooner.

After leaving Mr. Van den Ende, we called on Mr. Prinsen. He resides at the normal school, which is rather a handsome building with the following inscription on the façade: "*Rijks Kweek-school voor Schoolonderwijzers*"; which means, *Royal Seminary for the training of Schoolmasters*. I was prepared to see a man of grave deportment, devoted to his duties, and of extensive acquirements. He has been long engaged in the career of public instruction, and began life as a schoolmaster. He is now at the head of this school, and also inspector of the primary schools in the district. It requires all his activity and all his energy rightly to discharge this double duty, and it will be seen in the sequel, that for a normal primary school such as that of Haarlem, a master of those high endowments is indispensable.

pupils. 3. Expense of the school; expenses of Lancasterian schools. a. Cost of books, copy-books, &c. (at Rotterdam, Haarlem, and Sneek.) b. Remuneration of the master and the assistants. c. Cost of the furniture.—All these are more considerable in the Lancasterian schools, than in ours.

He is about sixty years of age, nearly six feet high, very strong, and with a grave and somewhat severe expression. Unluckily for me, he could not speak French, although he understands it, so that Mr. Schreuder had to act as interpreter between us.

I explained my object to him,—“I am desirous,” I said, “to learn in this conversation, in the first place, the constitution of this school, and the principles upon which it is founded; and I shall then beg of you to show it to me at work, by allowing me to inspect it along with you: first let me know the rule, and then show me the result. Show me,” I said, “the code of regulations of the school.” “There are none; I am myself the code,” he replied, smiling.

I shall now give a summary, somewhat dry I fear, of the long conversation I had with Mr. Prinsen, through the medium of Mr. Schreuder.

The normal primary school of Haarlem is a day-school (*un externat*). Every pupil has a royal pension^a, or a half pension, for his support in the town; and none are admitted until they have completed their fifteenth year. Besides these special pupils, they admit a certain number of youths who do not receive any thing from the government, and of schoolmasters who have already received an ap-

^a Bourse, the *bursary* of the Scotch universities.

pointment, but are desirous of further instruction. The pupils come from all parts of the kingdom, and are admitted on the recommendation of the district inspectors, receiving however their nomination directly from the minister. They undergo a three months' probation, during which time the head master gets acquainted with them, and puts their capacities to the test. At the end of the three months he makes a report to the minister, and upon that report they are finally admitted: it is then that their instruction in the normal school properly begins.

There are forty pupils in all, and the course of instruction lasts for four years. As practice and not theory is the sole object here, and as the education is carried so far as to enable the pupils, on the occasion of their examination as to proficiency in attainments, to be ranked in the first class, which is equivalent to our *degré d'instruction primaire supérieure*, and as that rank cannot be obtained in Holland before the age of twenty-five, it has been considered that four years were not more than enough for the whole course of study and the practice necessary to form an accomplished schoolmaster. The greater proportion of the pupils remain therefore for the whole period, but there is no obligation to continue for four years, for although they are prepared for the first class, very few try for it. The schools

for the humbler ranks are the great object for the country, and it is principally in training masters for them that the normal school is intended, although a higher education is also given there.

1. *Subjects taught.* There are three branches, viz. the art of teaching, properly so called, (*pédagogie*^a), history, and mechanical philosophy, which, being considered more difficult than the others, are taught by two separate courses during the normal curriculum. The other branches, such as natural history, geography, penmanship, drawing, singing, and mathematics, are taught by one course only, and in succession. The religious instruction is independent of any dogma or creed peculiar to this or that communion; but Bible history, as the basis of the religion of every sect, is regularly taught, and the moral precepts which occur in the course of the reading are then inculcated.—“No,” said Mr. Prinsen, “we have not even any special instruction in morals. I cannot form an idea of lectures on morals, or on what is called natural religion, without necessarily entering the domain of metaphysics. But moral and religious

^a We want a good English designation for this important branch of professional education. Although *pedagogy* be used by some old writers, any term in which the word *pedagogue* should prominently appear would, to an English ear, bring with it associations that would detract somewhat from the respect in which the subject should be held.—TR.

sentiments are unceasingly excited, cherished, and impressed upon the minds of the pupils, by all the masters, on all occasions. The subject of morals belongs alike to all the masters, but no one is specially appointed to teach it. We admit Catholics, Protestants, and even Jews; but the latter are present at the lessons on the Old Testament only. Those Jewish pupils become afterwards masters of schools which are supported by Jews for the children of their own persuasion."

If we combine this statement of Mr. Prinsen with what Mr. Van den Ende said on the same subject, we shall have before us the great distinctive feature in the primary schools of Holland; namely, the total absence of all special instruction either in religion or in morals; and that too in the schools of a people that may fairly be classed among the most moral and the most religious on the face of the earth. The practice in Germany is quite different, and the difference originates in the opposite natures of the excellent people of the two countries. In Holland, every thing which is purely theoretical or speculative is studiously avoided as an unproductive luxury, especially in matters of education; and they adhere to that which is real in its nature; that is, they devote themselves to the acquisition of those habits, which are the fruit of continued exercise. On the

other hand, in Germany, where the genius of speculation is dominant, there is not a single elementary school, in which the Christian truths, which were made for the poor in spirit as well as for the learned, are not taught in a manner the most simple and clear, in all their general doctrines and moral consequences, as the great foundation of morality both private and public. I lean to the side of the Germans. I confess that the absolute separation of the school and the church is, to my mind, in no degree better than the undue interference of the one with the other would be. There is a happy medium in this matter, which Holland is far from being in any disposition to adopt. But I must go on with my description, and leave discussion to another time.

Mr. Prinsen, assisted by one under-master, takes charge of the higher branches of instruction, and these are usually taught in the evening. This however is not the normal instruction, properly so called. The pupils are occupied the whole day as assistants, under masters, or temporary head masters in different schools in the town, according to their degree of advancement. There are two thousand three hundred children attending schools in Haarlem, which supply the pupils with a constant opportunity of making a practical application of the rules they have been taught; and these children are collected in several

distinct schools, in order that all the pupils of the normal school may, in their turn, have the advantage of thus exercising themselves in actual practice. This large number of schools is not only necessary for the place, but is besides a great advantage—"There must not," said Mr. Prinsen,—and I was delighted to hear him say so,—“there must not be too many pupils in one school. When that is the case, the master cannot have that direct communication with the individual children which is absolutely necessary in order that each child may receive a vivid impression of the school, and retain a lively recollection of what passes within its walls. Besides, if they were collected in large numbers, there would not be schools enough for exercising the pupils of the normal school, and thus, those who had been doing duty as under-masters would be obliged to wait so long before their turn would come of acting as head master, that they would get discouraged, and either fall into habits of mere routine, or give the thing up altogether.”

2. *Discipline.* I was particularly anxious to study this part of the system attentively, especially in a day normal school. I had seen some such schools, and tolerably good ones, in Prussia, but in the best normal primary schools, the admirable establishments at Potsdam and at Brühl, the pupils live and are boarded

in the house. They consider, in Prussia, that in this way the young schoolmasters are better trained ; that the head master is able to exert a greater degree of influence over them, inasmuch as it is more constant ; and that, by having one or two schools in different degrees of advancement, attached to the establishment, the pupils have quite as good an opportunity of seeing the practical application of the system, as they would have in schools in the town, detached from the normal school. They also attach great importance to that preparation for the hard life of a schoolmaster which the discipline of a boarding-school may be made to afford : thus, they are not waited upon by servants, but must serve themselves. They are, moreover, excited to a greater degree of emulation by living together, their different characters and talents are better seen, and they have a better opportunity of practising those duties by which a truly Christian spirit is cultivated. Such, at least, is the opinion of the most able schoolmasters in Germany, and it is the system most generally acted upon there. There are, nevertheless, some very good day normal schools, and I have recommended in my report, that we should begin with these in France ; but, at the same time, I must say that they ought, in my opinion, to be viewed only as make-shifts, under particular circumstances ; either when there is no suit-

able building, or when it is necessary to study economy. The normal school at Haarlem, therefore, excited my curiosity in the highest degree, and I was desirous of learning the most minute details as to the maintenance of order, the manners of the pupils, and all those sentiments and habits which are essential in a good master, in an establishment different both from ordinary life and from that of a cloister; and Mr. Prinsen gave me the following account.

“I must begin with observing, that the pupils come here voluntarily, and with the object of perfecting themselves in the profession they have chosen; it is one therefore of the highest moment to them, and in which their whole future existence is deeply interested. They are thus predisposed of themselves to orderly conduct, and do not require the discipline of a boarding-school. Every one of them may be said to subject himself to the moral discipline which he maintains in the school; and besides, any one who has not these good dispositions, or does not acquire them in the first three months, is immediately sent away. Those who stand the test of that state of probation know full well that the least fault will be severely punished, that they depend entirely upon the good opinion of the head master, and that dismissal will inevitably follow the least expression of discontent. They are prohibited from attend-

ing any public place, and if found in a public house, they are severely reprimanded for the first offence, and are turned away for a second. They are not allowed to be absent one night from the town without leave from the head master. They are not at liberty to choose their place of abode; a lodging is found for them by the head master, and he settles their accounts. The families who board those pupils have a direct interest to enter into the views of the head master: it is a mark of distinction, and a great advantage to a family in narrow circumstances, to get pupils of the normal school to live with them; and they are taken away upon the least suspicion of any thing being wrong. The pupils are not treated as strangers, but must conform to all the rules and customs of the family, and where they are every hour of the day must be known. The head master visits these boarding-houses once a fortnight at least, and he is in communication with the officers of police, who are officially bound to give him information of any thing concerning the pupils which comes to their knowledge."

This is exactly the system of discipline followed in the day normal schools of Prussia^a. But it is

^a I regret that I did not give a detailed account of the regulations of these schools. I might have chosen as an example the Protestant school at Soest in Westphalia under the direction of Mr. Ehrlich,

evident how much more difficult of execution it must be than that which can be adopted where the pupils live in the house; how many precautions must be taken, one of which failing, the others become inoperative; and it requires, besides, that the person at the head of it should possess a degree of vigilance, energy, and strictness tempered with discretion, much beyond the fair average of men; while a boarding-school, from its very nature, may be well managed by a head master of lower qualifications. I saw very well, both from our conversation and from my having been with him a whole day, that Mr. Prinsen is a man quite made for his situation. I do not know that he has the extensive acquirements, the richly cultivated and enlightened mind of Mr. Striez of Potsdam, but it is only necessary to have been a short time with him to discover, that he possesses an admirable energy of character, both physical and moral, an authority which belongs to his nature, an innate aptitude for governing, and something about him which is altogether so imposing, that I readily admitted the truth of what he said to me: "I assure you, most conscientiously, that our plan works in general perfectly well; and

or the Catholic school of St. Matthew at Treves, conducted by the Rev. Mr. Schuelzgen.—*Report, &c.*, p. 288. I have given an account of the day normal school at Weimar.—*Report*, p. 52—55.

the instances of irregularity are so rare that they cannot in fairness be set down as arising out of the system itself:" but, I could not resist saying to him, "You, Mr. Prinsen, are yourself not only the code of regulations for the school, but you are the very personification of the whole system."

Mr. Schreuder, my interpreter, who, as I have already mentioned, was himself at the head of the normal school at Lierre, assured me that they had not experienced there any inconvenience from pursuing the same plan; but I might, without flattery, have made the same answer to him as I did to Mr. Prinsen. With head masters like them, no system would be bad. Neither must we forget to take into account the more tranquil temperament of young Dutchmen, and the more sedate character of the Flemings, which render strictness of discipline less necessary. But both these gentlemen agreed in saying that the day-school system is applicable only to a small town; Mr. Prinsen considered it necessary that it should be a town or large village of about 2,000 inhabitants, which would supply about three hundred children of the school age for the practical application of the system of the normal school; and both concurred in opinion that a normal school of this description ought to have only a moderate number of pupils.

I must not omit to mention one of the strongest arguments urged by these two enlightened men in favour of day normal schools : " You maintain," they said, " that the boarding-school, with its strict discipline, is a better preparation for the future life of a schoolmaster. Now we, on the contrary, are convinced that a young man who has passed some years in such an establishment, will find himself very much at a loss what to do when thrown entirely upon his own resources ; while by our plan, he learns how to act for himself, and how to deal with others ; and the life he leads is an apprenticeship for that which awaits him."

There is certainly a great deal of force in that argument, and I admit that examples are not wanting of young men who, after having been models of purity in the boarding-school, have shewn on leaving it that they did not know how to behave with propriety, have been guilty of great acts of folly, or have proved, at least, that they were incapable of accommodating themselves to any other mode of life than that to which they had been accustomed in their seminary.

But it is not necessary that I should decide in favour of either the one system or the other. Both are good, according as they are adapted to the country, and to the time ; and, above all, according

to the person who is appointed to carry them into operation; for I shall never cease to repeat the maxim, "As is the master, so is the school;" and unless the head master of a day normal school be a man of high qualifications, the institution will assuredly fail.

The financial arrangements may be described in a few words. The Haarlem normal school costs the government 10,000 florins annually (about £840) for the forty pupils; including the keeping up of the building and the furniture, and the salary of Mr. Prinsen, which is 1600 florins (about £134). The head master has, besides, very good apartments in the house.

Having thus described the constitution of this school, I shall now proceed to show the working of it; by taking the reader, as Mr. Prinsen and Mr. Schreuder took me, to the schools in the town, where the young teachers were engaged in carrying the system into practice. I saw youths employed there in the different departments of primary instruction, and acting under the direction of the head master of each of the schools, most of whom had been pupils of Mr. Prinsen in his normal school. We went through the primary instruction in all its stages. First, we visited a school for the poor, that is, an elementary gratis school; next a *Tusschen-school*, which is the

same as our elementary pay school ; and then one of those called French schools, private establishments, which are pretty nearly equivalent to our higher primary schools and the *Bürgerschulen* of Germany. I was very much pleased with the activity and intelligence of the young teachers, but what struck me most was the authority of Mr. Prinsen. As head master of the normal school he has authority over the youths, as Inspector of the Haarlem district he has authority over the schoolmasters themselves ; and thus all the schools, pupils, and masters, of all degrees and of all conditions, are under his command, as an army is under its general. Every thing is put in motion by the sound of his voice ; every thing is animated by his mind and soul. The plan of teaching to read, of which he is the author, but which I do not think it necessary to describe, is that universally followed. The nine progressive tables employed in it are hung up in the schools, and thus Mr. Prinsen, whether absent or present, is always there.

I had now seen, in Holland, primary schools of all kinds, with the exception of a village school ; so Mr. Prinsen offered to shew me some, in the course of a walk which we took in the neighbourhood of the town, for the purpose of my seeing the beautiful gardens that surround Haarlem, and the conservatories of Mr. Van der Hoop of Amsterdam. These last are very

fine, and I saw a specimen of that successful cultivation of flowers which constitutes one of the curiosities, and is at the same time one of the sources of the wealth, of Haarlem. We walked as far as the sand hills which skirt the shore, and from the summit of them enjoyed, for some time, the view of two magnificent objects ; behind us, the vast inland lake called the Sea of Haarlem, with the bay of the Y and the Zuyder Zee ; and, on the other side, at about half a league's distance, the wide expanse of the northern ocean.

Both in going and returning, we visited several schools ; and I confess that my surprise was raised to a higher pitch than it had been by what I saw in the schools in the town. Mr. Prinsen did not, I dare say, select the worst specimens, but whether they were purposely chosen, or that we came upon them by chance in the course of our walk, it is very certain that neither in Prussia nor in Saxony did I see, not to say better, but such excellent village schools. Imagine a house of modest pretensions, but of perfect and truly Dutch neatness, divided into two parts ; on the one side a large room capable of receiving all the children in the village, of the school-age, boys and girls ; and on the other side the dwelling of the master and his family ; the school-room lighted from the roof, with ventilators

on each side, several tables at which the children were arranged, according to their state of advancement, with a space between, to allow an easy passage for the master and the pupils. Along the walls were suspended the nine class-tables of Mr. Prinsen, a large black board, for exercises, models of weights and measures according to the decimal division, and, what I did not always meet with in Germany, another black board, with the lines drawn upon it for writing music, and for putting down the notes when a singing lesson is given. It will hardly be believed, but it is certainly true, that all the schoolmasters spoke French with tolerable fluency. The children were examined before me in several things, and did well. One of the masters had his own son for an assistant, a boy of fourteen, whom he intends to be his successor one day. According to the old system, this boy would have had no other instructor than his father, would never have known more than he did, and unless he possessed an inventive genius, would have stopped where his father stopped. But he will now go to the normal school at Haarlem, and he will not only receive there a higher education, but he will have such an opportunity of practice in the different schools as will be sure to develop his natural powers.

I cannot express how much I was touched by

hearing in these little village schools, at the singing lesson, the same national air which I had heard sung in the schools at The Hague, and at Haarlem. I heard the same song every where else. It is a simple and noble composition, inspiring patriotism and loyalty, and bringing home to the heart many ennobling sentiments. Every great people ought to have a national anthem, to be sung everywhere, in the greatest theatres, and in the humblest schools, in cities and in villages. The English *God save the King* is a beautiful song of this description. In France we have some admirable songs to which our revolutions have given birth, but we have no national hymn. It would be a work worthy of a great master to compose a tune to words in a noble but unemphatic strain, which should be a source of moral inspirations, free from all those exaggerated and impassioned expressions which should never, under any pretext whatever, be heard within the walls of a school for children; and be so wholly free from party spirit, that it might be in harmony with all times and all opinions, and with the feelings of all classes of society. I attach so much importance to improving the mind by the aid of music, that, if I were minister, I should not hesitate to propose a prize for the best national song, adapted to schools for the people. Speaking of music, I must not leave

Haarlem without a word about its celebrated organ of six thousand pipes, in the old Catholic cathedral, now used as a Protestant church, to the sounds of which I listened with exquisite delight. I saw too, in the market place, the statue of Koster, who is looked upon here as the inventor of printing.

It was with regret I left this pretty town, where the cares of trade have by no means effaced a taste for the charms of nature; and where the presence of Mr. Van den Ende and Mr. Prinsen brought constantly before me the image of Cuvier, who knew and esteemed them both; and, a quarter of a century before, far from his country and his family, had conversed, on the same spot and on the same topics as I had done, with these excellent men, whose names he had so often mentioned to me, and to whom I also, in all probability, then bade a last farewell.

AMSTERDAM.

WE arrived at Amsterdam in the evening, in very bad weather, and coming in the midst of the fair, we had some difficulty to find accommodation; we put up, at last, at a genuine Dutch inn, the Rondeel, where no one understood a word of French. Next morning early we walked out to see something of the town, before commencing our visits to the schools.

I found myself here completely out of France, and transported to quite another region. The aspect of places, the general habits, the peculiar customs, —all were new to me. Amsterdam contains above 200,000 souls, and is situated at the mouth of the river Amstel, where it flows into the bay of the northern ocean, called the Zuyder Zee. It lies upon the shore of that sea, is intersected in all directions by the river, and by an infinite number of canals, and has thus a vast harbour. The whole town is built upon piles; and some idea may be formed of the labour of constructing this assemblage of human habitations, from the fact, that the king's palace, in former times the town-house, stands upon 13,695 trunks of trees. Amsterdam is the Venice of the

north, and, like that of the south, has quite an original character; one feels there in another world, and at the same time in the seat of an empire. But how ugly the northern Venice is in bad weather! The rain, which had fallen incessantly for several days, had inundated the streets, and almost confounded them with the canals; there seemed to be nothing but water, and that putrid water. As the canals receive the whole filth of the town, they give forth a constant bad smell, and after a heavy and long continued rain has stirred up these sewers, the exhalations are unbearable. The inhabitants do not seem to mind it; but I must own that the mephitic odour took away, from the first moment, all comfort during my stay. I allow, nevertheless, that Amsterdam is a magnificent town. The quays, which are planted with fine trees and skirted by houses worthy of the ancient lords of the ocean, are beautiful. At the harbour we were shewn the house of De Ruyter; his monument is in the new church. The old church, which was formerly so rich and beautiful, is now bare and deserted: this vast cathedral contains some wonderfully fine painted windows; I have seen some in which the colouring was better, as for example those of St. Gudule at Brussels, but I have nowhere seen any so vast. The museum of paintings at Amsterdam is perhaps even more rich than

that of The Hague. Leaving aside the productions of foreign masters, as well as those of Flemish artists, I confined my whole attention to the Dutch school; and it was with difficulty that I could get away from this admirable collection, which would have required a whole week for even a cursory study.

Mr. Schreuder introduced me to Mr. Teissèdre L'Ange, a clergyman of the Walloon church, and school inspector of the district; he had been prepared for my coming, and gave me a most kind reception. He said that his time was entirely at my disposal, and asked what I should like to see. "The schools for the poor," was my reply. He told me that he had acted as guide to Cuvier when he visited these schools in Amsterdam, and that I should find them in at least as good a state as they were at that time.

The schools of Amsterdam are under the direction of Mr. L'Ange, and of the school committee of the town. Here, as well as in all the towns of any importance, besides the school inspector specially appointed, there is, by law, a committee selected from among the more respectable inhabitants, and constituted in a manner that would be contrary to all our habits of thinking on such subjects, but which appears to me extremely ju-

ditions and practical. In general, except the inspector, there is no *ex officio* person in this committee, not even the burgomaster. Zeal, activity, kindness of disposition, and an aptitude for particular things, belong necessarily to individual character, and cannot be expected *à priori* in this or that functionary. The new members are appointed upon the recommendation of the others, which is another good principle; for, in this way, none are appointed but those whose particular capacity for the duty is known, and in whom there is a security that they will act in harmony with their colleagues. Further, the inspector, besides being a member of the committee, joins in the recommendation; and as he has a great degree of influence, it may be said that the recommendation is in reality vested in him. In this way, harmony is maintained between the inspector and the committee, without which it would be impossible to accomplish any good. The school committee of Amsterdam and Mr. L'Ange have for a long time worked together, and this good understanding has produced, in the course of time, those beautiful results, with which Cuvier was so much delighted.

For several reasons, the schools for the poor at Amsterdam are placed under a special board, called the College of Curators. This body drew up, as

early as 1798, an excellent code of regulations for these schools, which is now before me. It is divided into seven heads, viz., the admission of the children—the division of them into three classes—the school hours—the detailed plan of teaching—the books used—the rewards and punishments—the masters. The following is an extract from this last head. “The head master is appointed by the Board of Curators. The under masters are appointed by them, upon the recommendation of the head master. A married man is preferred for the office of head master; and if he is unmarried, he must engage a schoolmistress at his own expense, but she must be approved of by the curators. The salary of the head master is 900 florins a year, (equal to £75,) with lodging, fire, and light; and his widow has a right to a pension of 250 florins per annum. The salary of the chief under master is 400 florins, of the second under master, 100 florins. When the masters discover a pupil who shews a peculiar talent for teaching, they bring him under the notice of the curators, who make an agreement with the parents of the child, and pay him somewhat higher wages than he would receive if put out to an ordinary trade, until he is capable of acting as an under master.” This code is signed by the president of the board, and by the secretary, Mr. Wertz, an

eminent schoolmaster and inspector at Amsterdam, who has left behind him a name, which is held in veneration for the services he rendered to the cause of the education of the people.

I also procured a copy of regulations issued by the board in 1804, and signed by the same Mr. Wertz, who was then the president, in which the last part of the section of the code of 1798, which refers to the children who continue at the school for the purpose of being brought up to the profession of a schoolmaster, is gone into at greater length, being considered under separate articles, of which the following is an abridgement: 1st. Pupils who remain at the school to be instructed in the calling of a teacher shall receive, as a reward of their services in the school, fifty florins annually for the first two years, and seventy-five florins for the two following. 2d. The parents of the child shall not be at liberty to withdraw him from the engagement, during the period agreed upon for his stay, without the consent of the curators, and without repayment of the money the pupil has received, up to the time of his removal. 3d. The parents shall sign an obligation to repay the money so received by their child, in case they shall withdraw him. 4th. If the parents of a child, contravening the 2d article, receive assistance from the funds for the poor, the curators shall inform

the administrators of those funds, and they must withhold all payments to that family. 5th. The curators reserve to themselves the right of dismissing any pupil who does not conduct himself properly.

Since the passing of the law of 1806, they have not set aside the code of 1798, but it has been repeatedly altered; not, however, of late years. They have not been constantly making alterations, but they have always kept in the same track, and that is the reason why they have made so much progress.

There were at first only three schools for the poor in Amsterdam, but now there are eleven; one for each subdivision of the town. The following is an exact description of these schools, which I have taken from a very interesting and instructive report of the College of Curators, dated the 7th of March, 1817, which I shall have occasion to quote frequently hereafter.

“The school-rooms are an elongated square. The desks and benches are placed in rows parallel to the side walls, leaving a sufficient space between the wall and the first bench. By this arrangement, the children, when seated behind each other, have their faces turned towards the wall, upon which black boards are hung, and on these, letters, writing copies, and various exercises in language, arithmetic, and singing, are written with chalk.

“ The school is divided into three classes: the first or lowest class is subdivided into three *forms*, the second into two *desks*; in the lowest class there are no desks, as they do not write. The following is a list of the things taught in the different classes and subdivisions.

“ FIRST CLASS.

“ 1st *Form*, letters and spelling. 2d *Form*, spelling and separating words into syllables. 3d *Form*, spelling, reading, and punctuation; numeration and the multiplication table.

“ SECOND CLASS.

“ 1st *Desk*, reading, parts of speech, principles of writing, formation of cyphers, the first elements of arithmetic, singing.

“ 2d *Desk*, reading, writing, arithmetic, mental arithmetic, declensions and conjugations, history of the Netherlands, sacred history from the Bible, singing.

“ In the THIRD CLASS, reading of a more advanced description, writing, arithmetic in its applications by the rule of three and higher rules, the grammar and syntax of the Dutch language, the history of the Netherlands and of other countries, sacred history from the Bible, and singing.

“ Besides these several kinds of instruction, one

hour a week is devoted to teaching the principles of religion. Upon each occasion, the pupils are questioned upon the subject of the lesson, in order that they may fully comprehend what they have read.

“The pupils never leave their seats during the lessons; every thing is done by examples written with chalk upon the black boards on the walls, in writing, in the study of language, in arithmetic, in singing, &c., but they have also books for learning to spell and to read; they always write in copy-books, and never use slates except for arithmetic.

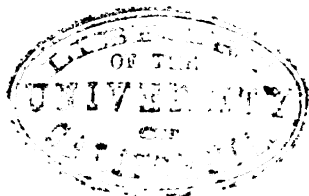
“The letters of the alphabet are traced upon the board before the pupils, as well as diphthongs and triphthongs, which they are taught to pronounce in one syllable; and they are also taught to unite consonants and to pronounce them by one effort of the voice. The master of the beginners shews them, on the board, the simple letters, the double and compound consonants, and syllables of two and three vowels; and after they have learned to pronounce them, they are made to find them out in their book; and in this way they learn insensibly to spell, so that, in general, in a very short time, there are no longer any of those who are styled the first form of the first class.

“In every school containing from 300 to 400

children, the instruction is confided to a head master, who has under him a first and a second usher, besides some apprenticed teachers, and some who are expecting to be apprenticed.

“As it is a great object, in these schools, to lead the children on, rather by a sense of duty and a spirit of emulation than by a servile dread of punishments, on choosing a master, they require, as essential qualifications, not only that he be irreproachable in morals and in piety, but that he be of great calmness and sobriety of character. He must have a thorough knowledge of the rules of his native tongue; and be well versed in writing, arithmetic, history, and geography; be able to instruct in singing, and be competent to teach the principles of religion; above all, he is required to possess the talent of communicating what he knows with readiness to his pupils: thus, not only the head master, but also the under masters have to undergo a very severe examination, both upon the theory and the practice of the art of teaching, before they are admissible to any charge.

“To the head master belongs the general direction of the school; he must maintain good order, and see that the ushers and the apprenticed teachers, as well as the pupils, rigidly perform their several duties. He also takes a part in the teaching of the



upper class, and occasionally in that of the other classes.

“The ushers teach, under the immediate superintendence of the head master, either through the medium of the black boards, or by hearing the children read from their elementary books; but always in their places.

“The apprenticed teachers are youths selected from among the best scholars in the upper class, and those only are apprenticed who have distinguished themselves by assiduity and good conduct, and who have manifested a desire, approved of by their parents, to devote themselves to the instruction of youth. They are at first received as candidates, and they are made to assist in the school, particularly in teaching the first or lowest class, and those who belong to the first desk in the second class. After having been for some time exercised in this way; they undergo an examination, and are placed among the apprenticed teachers, according to their capacities.

“This institution thus becomes a nursery for school-masters, and the more so in consequence of an arrangement by which these youths, whether they be candidates or apprenticed teachers, are instructed during the intervals of the ordinary school hours, by three masters, in writing, correct reading, the more difficult parts of the structure of their own language,

history, geography, arithmetic, algebra, and geometry. Another advantage is, and in this respect it differs from any other institution of the kind, that none are admitted as candidates but those who have been found by actual trial to possess a natural talent, together with the preliminary qualifications, for the vocation of a teacher; and the consequence of this has been, that it has sent out a great many masters equally distinguished by talent and personal character. As soon as the candidates are admitted into the rank of apprenticed teachers, they receive, like the masters and ushers, an annual salary.

“In every school an exact account is kept of the absences of the scholars, and there are marks for good conduct and for proficiency in reading, writing, cyphering, language, &c. At the end of every week, these marks are reckoned up, and the names of the two girls and the two boys in each class who have the greatest number, are proclaimed, and their names are inscribed on a tablet kept for the purpose, where they remain during the whole of the ensuing week. At the end of six months, an account is taken of all these marks, and the four pupils, in each subdivision of the several classes, who have obtained the most, and consequently have had their names most frequently inscribed weekly on the tablet, receive prizes of useful books neatly bound. Prints and small

picture books are given to those of the younger children who have been most steady in their attendance, and, to the elder ones, presents of body-linen and of stockings, as an encouragement to good conduct. The prizes are always delivered by members of the College of Curators, at the conclusion of an examination, which takes place every six months. They are severally required to pay a monthly visit to each of the schools under their special charge, and to give in a report of those visits at the monthly meeting of the general board.

“The scholars who leave the school are distinguished into three classes : the first consists of those who, from having been frequently absent, or from having been found incorrigibly bad, are dismissed, or have their names erased from the school list ; the second comprehends those who have left the school in the regular course, that is, at the determinate age, and with the consent of the school authorities ; and all are enrolled in the third class who have successfully gone through the whole course of study. These last, on leaving school, are presented with a certificate of honour, at the annual public meeting held for the purpose of receiving the report of the College of Curators, and they receive at the same time a present of linen and stockings. At the same meeting, which is usually held in one of the churches of the city, the as-

sembled pupils go through some exercises, in presence of the public, to show the progress they have made; and the apprenticed teachers exhibit proofs of their acquirements, and of their skill in the art of teaching.

“The punishments consist either in a task to be learned after school-hours, in making the culprit stand up for some time in the presence of his companions, and in marks of *bad* conduct, which are deducted from the marks that are given for diligence and good conduct. Corporal punishments are rarely resorted to, and when they are deemed necessary, the master *only* inflicts them, and always without betraying any signs of passion.

“If there be not sufficient space for a separation of the sexes, the boys and girls are taught in one room, but at separate desks, and on separate forms, so that no irregularity can take place.

“Besides the branches of instruction taught in common to the children of both sexes, the girls are regularly taught to knit, usually by the wives of the masters. Such of the girls as, on leaving this school, receive certificates of good conduct, are received afterwards into other schools, instituted solely for the children of the indigent classes, which are under the management of ladies, who are called Direc-

tresses, (*Regentes*,) and these girls are instructed in all branches of needle-work.

“Finally, during the winter months, there is an evening school for those youths who have left the day-school, and are working as apprentices in different trades, but are still desirous of keeping up the knowledge they had acquired.”

In order to judge for myself of the correctness of this description, I requested Mr. L'Ange to shew me the principal school for the poor in Amsterdam; one that would give me the most exact and complete idea of the rest. We went together, and, on entering the school, I at once recognized the original of that picture which I have just drawn: a large airy room; boards upon the walls; children of both sexes, badly enough clothed, but washed and clean after their fashion; in three divisions, each under the management of an assistant master. These assistants are subordinate to under masters, who are in their turn subordinate to the head master or director. There were about six hundred children, and the room might, and was intended to, contain a thousand, as soon as some repairs were completed.

I said to Mr. L'Ange that I heartily wished that these repairs might never be completed; as six

hundred children were quite enough for one school, even for a school for the poor. When so many children are employed in different occupations, there must necessarily be a noise; this may be no inconvenience to the younger ones, who are engaged in things almost wholly mechanical; but it must be an annoying disturbance to the more advanced pupils. Instead of one vast room, it would be much better to have two or three smaller ones, adjoining each other, where the different divisions might be taught. I again repeat, that the object is not to make a gratifying display of a large assemblage of children under the tuition of a single master, but how to obtain the best education for every individual child; and to do this, there must not only be different classes in the school, but there must be a separate room for each class. In my opinion, a hundred children are quite enough for one room, and three or four rooms for one school. There ought to be more schools; and the existing ones ought to be less numerous; in every school there ought to be more rooms, and in every one of these rooms there ought to be a smaller number of children. To this Mr. L'Ange had but one objection to make.—“The money!—the money! it would require so many more buildings.” On this point I differ from him. It is more easy and less expensive to purchase several small houses and adapt

them to the purpose, than to build one large school-room; especially in such places as Amsterdam and Paris; and I quoted to the worthy inspector the example of Berlin, where none of the parochial schools for the poor contain more than three hundred children^a. As a question of health it is very important: I remarked that the heat was very great in that large room, notwithstanding the season of the year; and the heat was not of a very healthy description, in spite of the windows and all the other precautions for ventilation.

I was surprised to see a boy of twelve years old, in one of the passages, teaching the first elements of reading to some very young children. "Is that little fellow an assistant?" I asked.—"No, he is one of the pupils in the school, belonging to the most advanced class."—"He is then a moniter," I replied, "and you adopt the plan of mutual instruction." "God forbid," said Mr. L'Ange with a smile,—"but we are eclectic here; we do not proscribe any useful practice, to whatever general system it may belong. Thus, when a child is found to possess the talent of teaching, and intends to become an assistant, and ultimately a teacher in a primary school, (and you know that every school for the poor is a true normal primary

^a Vid. Original Report, p. 409.

school,) we see no objection to entrusting a pupil of this description, not to teach, but to hear the lessons, in the more easy parts, repeated. In a case of exigency, children may be safely employed for the repetition of certain things; but the initiatory steps of all teaching require a master. Even our assistants, who are in fact masters, are not entrusted with any thing beyond simple repetitions."

Our visit being over, we entered gravely into a consideration of the comparative merits of the plans of mutual and of simultaneous instruction. "Are you well acquainted, sir," I said, "with the system of mutual instruction?—have you applied it in practice?—and what is your opinion of it?"—"We know it," he replied; "we have tried it, and we consider it as wholly insufficient for the object to be attained."—"It is not," (I make use of the very words of Mr. L'Ange)—"It is not a system which is calculated for moral and intelligent beings; and we do not admit the justice of applying it in a school for the poor, more than in any other school. For the poor have especial need of *education*, and you cannot *educate* by a plan of mutual instruction; you can *instruct* only by it, and that in so superficial, and in some respects mechanical a way, that it is no cultivation of the mind. At the time when Holland and Belgium were united, the Belgian liberals used to talk so highly in favour

of that system, especially for large numbers of children, as in the schools for the poor, that our college of curators, who are attentive to every thing of consequence that is going on, which bears upon the education of the people, thought it their duty to make trial of the new system; and the result of that trial was, that the plan of simultaneous teaching is the only truly rational mode of education. In one of their reports upon our schools for the poor, they have stated the reasons which led them to that conclusion."—This is the report to which I have already alluded, and from which I extracted the account I have given of those schools in Amsterdam; and as it may be considered a very interesting document in the cause which is now a subject of debate before the tribunal of public opinion, between the partisans of the two plans of mutual and simultaneous instruction, it will not be without use if I give here a short analysis of it.

This report is divided into three parts; 1st, a faithful and impartial account of the Lancasterian system; 2dly, a description of the plan followed in the schools for the poor at Amsterdam, which is the part I have already copied; and 3dly, a comparison of the two methods, and the reasons which led the curators to prefer their own to the English method.

In this third part, they first treat of the subjects

taught in the schools of the two countries, and then of the mode of teaching. It is clear that in the Dutch schools much more is taught, and farther, it is demonstrated that the mode of teaching the same things is better in Holland. Among the several arguments brought forward in support of these opinions, we shall content ourselves by quoting the following, as in some degree comprehending all the rest: "In the Lancasterian system, the master himself does not appear to teach, but merely to superintend; whereas in the schools of Amsterdam, the head master regularly takes a part in the tuition."

The following passages, from that part of the report where this point is discussed, I earnestly recommend to the attention of every true friend of the education of the people.

"At Amsterdam, the teachers are men of experience, and youths who have given proofs of a capacity for teaching; but in the Lancasterian Schools in England, it is always children who teach. Now if it be true that the master who desires to teach with effect ought to be himself thoroughly well instructed, and be possessed of knowledge far beyond those whom he is to teach; if, above all, it be unquestionable that in order to teach any thing well, it is not enough to know it ourselves, but that we must have the art of imparting what we know in a clear intelligible

manner, adapted to the subject; it must be admitted that instruction, such as is conveyed at Amsterdam by experienced men, and by youths who are educating themselves to be masters, is infinitely preferable to the plan of one child teaching another. . . .

“ It is true that to maintain such schools as those of Amsterdam a larger sum is requisite than for Lancasterian schools; but on the other hand, the pupils in the former have the advantage of being taught by very able masters, who have had experience in teaching from their youth upwards; they have for their reading lessons several little works calculated to purify their hearts as well as store their minds; and they write from the first on paper, and so learn to form a good hand, and to write fluently. If our objects in the schools at Amsterdam were limited to teaching the children no more than what is taught in the Lancasterian schools, we might do very well with apprenticed teachers and candidates only, and a great number of the books used in teaching to read, and for the instruction of the children, might be dispensed with; slates might be substituted for copy books; and then the Amsterdam schools perhaps might cost less than those in England, and without giving up many things which are not taught in the latter schools. But, thanks to the munificence of the magistrates of

Amsterdam, and to the liberality of its inhabitants; thanks also to the interest which both the one and the other take in the promotion of education, our schools have never yet wanted a sufficiency of funds to pay able and experienced masters, to supply good books to the children who are taught gratuitously, and to teach them to write, not on slates, but with pen and ink and on good paper.

“Let it not be said that what is taught in the Lancasterian schools is sufficient, and that we carry the education of the indigent classes too far in our own. If it be sound policy (and it does not appear to us that it is now considered so) to keep the lower orders sunk in ignorance, let education of every kind be given up; for an education which stops short at the first rudiments, is more dangerous and far more to be feared than a system of education carried on to higher objects. A man who is able to read and no more, may read books that will corrupt his morals or lead him on to acts of sedition; and for want of sufficient knowledge to enable him to reflect upon and justly appreciate what he has read, he is liable to be misled and carried away by mere external impulses. We repeat it, if we go so far as to enable the lower orders to read, we ought to give them at the same time the means of understanding and setting a just value on what they read; and this is what is chiefly aimed at

in the education of the children of the poor in the schools of Amsterdam. All the books put into their hands, from the first elementary work, to those in use at the close of their education, contain precepts and examples of virtue, of wisdom, and of submission to superiors. They learn to read and to understand the history of their own country, and sacred history. Such reading lessons are better calculated than any thing else, to lead them on to the imitation of great and virtuous actions; the sole way of forming useful citizens. Further, (and this is another great advantage of the system followed in the schools of Amsterdam,) those among the pupils who show unusual talents have an opportunity of developing them, and of devoting themselves, by becoming apprentices, to the instruction of youth. In consequence of this, a great number of those necessitous children have been able to extricate themselves from a state of poverty, and to rise to the condition of reputable citizens."

The opinions and principles here expressed are not peculiar to the directors of the schools for the poor in Amsterdam, nor to Mr. L'Ange; they are held by all the inspectors, and by all men in Holland who take an interest in primary schools. The government found among certain persons in Belgium a prepossession in favour of the system of mutual

instruction; this they did not directly oppose, which would only have made the prepossession stronger, but they took pains to enlighten public opinion on the subject, and, I am told, with success. I shall quote here the very words of the government, as contained in one of those reports (that of 1818) which must, by law, be presented annually to the States General.

“A school for the poor has recently been established at Antwerp, in which they intend to adopt the system of mutual instruction, which is so much acted upon and approved of in England and France, but which is viewed with a less ardent admiration in other countries, such as Switzerland, Germany, Scotland, and Holland, where elementary education has for a long period been an object of the attention of government. Does the method of Lancaster yield results as durable as they are rapid? If it be useful in imparting quickly some elementary notions and elementary branches of knowledge, is it equally serviceable in developing and giving exercise to the moral faculties? Is it true that it is specially adapted to schools for the poor, where moral training is of infinitely higher importance than education in the ordinary sense of the term? Are its defects in this respect sufficiently compensated by its greater economy, both as regards time and money? Be-

fore we come to a final decision on these questions, a practical trial ought to be made, to see the effects of this plan of mutual instruction as compared with those of the systems hitherto acted upon. We shall have Lancasterian schools established by the side of those excellent schools which our country has so long had reason to boast of; and perhaps, by borrowing from each other what is preferable in each, we shall see the distance which now separates the two systems gradually diminish. Such, at all events, must be the wishes and the hopes of the government, which professes, and will observe, entire impartiality between them; its only aim will be to render both subservient to the public weal; to direct them, in common, towards the one great object—the diffusion of virtue and intelligence. It will regulate and facilitate all possible means of carrying both into effect with most advantage; leaving their farther progress and improvement to the zeal of their several partisans, and to the test of experience, a monitor that never addresses himself in vain to a generous and reflecting people.”

These wise and noble sentiments are the language of one skilled in the philosophy of teaching and an enlightened statesman—Mr. Falck, then Minister of Public Instruction, whose signature is affixed to the report.

After thus examining one of the best of the schools for the poor, we went to visit a kind of intermediate school, designated a Netherland Burgher school, (*Nederduitsche Burgerschool*), and called so because French is not taught there. There were from 400 to 500 pupils; but distributed in different rooms on different floors of the house, an arrangement which I maintain to be a great element of good order. In fact, I have not seen one primary school in Holland, at which fees are taken, where there was too large a number of pupils collected together in one room, and in truth there is no economy in so collecting them; for if there be a room large enough to contain 400 children, it is attended with little expense to divide it by partitions of boards, into two or three apartments, with a passage running through them, to enable the head master to superintend the different rooms with ease*.

I was particularly desirous of ascertaining how morals and religion were taught under the Dutch system, without inculcating positive dogmas in religion, or going into metaphysical abstractions in morals. Mr. L'Ange, who is a minister of the gospel,

* I have before me the rules of the intermediate school at Amsterdam, dated the 20th November, 1820. They are nearly the same as those of the *Tusschen Scholen* of Leyden and Rotterdam, of which I shall say more hereafter.

repeated to me what Mr. Van den Ende and Mr. Prinsen had told me before, viz. that no master is specially appointed for that purpose. "Morality and religion are at all times inculcated," he said, "but there is no special teaching of them, save by means of the Bible history. Every fact contained in that history affords matter for pious reflections, which develop both moral and religious sentiments. From time to time the head master goes round to ascertain the state of progress of each pupil in these particulars, and his examination is the true teaching." "Let us see," I said; "show me how you proceed in this matter."—He said that he should do so with pleasure, and immediately we commenced an examination of some of the pupils in morals and in religion. Mr. Schreuder, as we proceeded, translated to me the questions and the answers. He went over, in this way, some of the principal facts in sacred history, and in the higher division of the class he drew forth the moral truths deducible therefrom. The pupils answered with various degrees of readiness.

I must own that this examination did not remove my doubts, and that I still prefer the German method of special instruction in morals and religion; it is very general, and does not enter into the details of particular doctrines; but the great truths in morals,

and of the Christian religion, are systematically taught, together with the leading features in the history of the latter. I well remember the impression made upon me at the time, by a lesson of this kind at which I was present, in the Burgher school of Weimar. It appears to me, that without encroaching upon the province of the church, such a kind of instruction may be given by the master as may prepare the mind of the pupil for a more special religious course ; and without affording grounds for objection on the part of the minister of religion ; always supposing, however, that he is a reasonable person, and that the schoolmaster keeps within proper bounds. This is what is done in Germany, and what is prescribed by the French law. I have all along insisted upon this principle, both in framing that law, and in the discussions which took place upon it, and I still maintain it. We do not trust to the mere teaching of reading and writing, for giving children a knowledge of and a taste for history ; neither ought we to trust to any other than direct and special instruction for giving them a knowledge of morals and religion. It ought to be a fundamental principle, that religious and moral instruction should go hand in hand with every other ; but in order to do that, it must have itself a special place in the system. The most extended spirit of toleration must approve of a

system which in early life brings all religious opinions in accordance with those general truths that are common to all creeds. It is a precious germ of harmony to sow in the breast of children. Besides moral and religious tuition, essentially Christian, but independent of particular forms of faith, the children receive, out of school, that special instruction proper to be given to the members of each separate communion. It is true that a system so tolerant implies a tolerant country. In Ireland, it appears to have failed; as I ventured to predict to my friends in England and Scotland. In Prussia it succeeds perfectly; and in no country could it succeed better than in Holland, where piety and toleration have for ages gone hand in hand. Moreover, it would not introduce any very great change; all that is wanted is to collect together in one department of instruction, that which is scattered over and disseminated through all the rest; all that is requisite is, to add to the history of the Old and the New Testaments, the results which the Old and the New Testaments have produced, that is, the general principles of the Christian religion, and of Christian morals.

I dwell the more on this point, because it appears to me a matter of great importance to connect in a certain degree the primary schools with the church, where they have a common interest. I was as-

sured, it is true, that in Holland, the religious education of the children is carried on, out of school, under the different religious authorities, who watch over it with scrupulous care. But, I say it again, that special tuition would be both more easy and more solid, if it were founded upon religious instruction of a very general character. The school is not the church, but it prepares the way to it; and sometimes, indeed, it is there only that any religious instruction will be received.

In the afternoon, I met at dinner, at the house of Mr. L'Ange, Mr. Mollet, a schoolmaster, one of the very few quakers now left in Holland. He told me that he had established in Amsterdam a school for very young children, which might be considered as a sort of infant school. I entreated these two excellent men to cultivate that precious germ, and to get up some infant schools for Amsterdam. I endeavoured to show them that every school for the poor ought to have a gratuitous infant school annexed to it, and preparatory to it. The college of curators of the schools for the poor, who have already done so much for the indigent classes, must confer that farther blessing upon them.

Mr. L'Ange was in Paris last year, when he did not fail to visit some of the primary schools. He had anecdotes without end as to the defects of our ✓

schools of mutual instruction; but although he is naturally not easy to please, he admitted, that he had seen some of the schools of the Christian Doctrine Brethren^a very well managed, and affording some excellent results of the system of simultaneous teaching. It was curious enough, to hear in Amsterdam, a catholic, (Mr. Schreuder,) a protestant minister, a quaker, and a philosopher, agree in praising these poor Brethren, who have quietly been doing so much good, and whom fanatics, of a new description, have been trying in vain to bring into discredit, by giving them the name of Frères Ignorantins. But I must stop, lest I embroil Mr. L'Ange, notwithstanding his anti-catholic stiffness, and his thirty years' experience in the education of the people, with our Parisian philanthropists.

I ought to have staid some days at Amsterdam, but the bad weather and the smell of the canals drove me away; so next morning, at six o'clock, my companions and I were on our way to Utrecht.

^a *Frères de la doctrine Chrétienne.*

UTRECHT.

THE road from Amsterdam to Utrecht is celebrated. On each side there is an uninterrupted succession of charming landscapes, country houses and villas, the grounds of which come close to the road and to the canal, showing flower-beds, baskets of roses, and that freshness of verdure, even in autumn, which one misses in Italy at every season of the year. The road put me in mind of that between Verona and Venice, on the banks of the Brenta, with the same profusion of country seats. But here every thing is cold and monotonous; everlasting flat land; whereas on the banks of the Brenta, at the same time of the year, there is still a feeling of the heat of summer : and the Euganean Hills, with their harmonious outline, form an agreeable frame to the picture. But Holland and Italy are two extremes, which are no more to be brought into comparison than a Berghem and a Salvator Rosa; both extremes have a marked distinctive character.

Utrecht is a fine town, containing from forty to forty-five thousand souls. It stands higher than any town I had yet passed through, and the air felt purer and more keen. I must say that, leaving Amsterdam,

it gave me considerable pleasure to get into a town where I could freely draw my breath, with some danger perhaps to the delicacy of my lungs, but without offending my sense of smell.

There are three or four schools for the poor, several intermediate ones, and some private French schools. Latterly, the school committee of the town conceived the happy idea of founding a public French school, a true *Bürger-schule* of Germany, a primary school of a higher grade, to which the children of the better classes might go, and where the instruction should be better and more extended than in the private French schools. The members of the school committee established this school by a subscription among themselves, with some assistance from the local magistracy. It is really a public school, and it is flourishing; it is said that it will very soon be able to pay back the whole of the money advanced by the committee, and that it will soon cost the town nothing. There are two classes, one for beginners, the other for those who have already made some progress. The school fee is forty florins a year in the lower class, (£3 6s. 8d.,) and seventy-five in the upper class (£6 5s.). In the same house, but in another wing, there is a similar school for girls, but the lower class is as yet the only one which is opened. I carefully examined this school in all

its parts, and found it fully deserving of its high reputation. I can at least assert that I did not see a single French school in Holland, not excepting that of The Hague, where the French language was so well taught or carried on so far as in this school at Utrecht. The more advanced pupils were so familiar with that language, that I was able to examine them both upon the French itself, upon geography, and upon history. I selected the four best scholars, and I put to them tolerably difficult questions. They read French well, but out of such books! the eternal *Numa Pompilius*, which I met with from one end of Holland to the other, and a French translation of some work or other of Miss Edgeworth. As a member of the French Academy, I everywhere interposed, and besought the inspectors of the primary schools to introduce into the schools some truly classical French books; such, for example, as *Télémaque*, and the *Traité de l'existence de Dieu* of Fenelon, the *Mœurs des premiers Chrétiens* of Fleury, &c. I ventured further to recommend the small French Grammar of Lhomond for beginners, and for the more advanced, the excellent *Grammaire Française* of Gueroult. These young people quite astonished me by their answers on the History of France. They knew quite well the succession of the kings and the principal events of each reign. They had a thorough

knowledge of the geography of France, and I declare that I should have gone away perfectly well satisfied if I had got equally good answers in a school of the same class in Paris itself. I complimented with perfect sincerity the head master of the school, as well as the school inspector, Mr. Van Goudoever, Professor of Latin Literature in the university, an accomplished active minded man, who by his influence and the just consideration in which he is held, has been able to render the most essential service to the cause of primary instruction. When this establishment is completed by the addition of the higher class in the girls' school, it will form an excellent burgher school. I strongly recommended Mr. Van Goudoever to charge at least seventy-five florins in the last-mentioned class; for a somewhat high fee, if it be not raised too high, is the only way to induce the middle ranks to send their children to a primary school; because it is some security to them that they will not be associated with those belonging to the indigent classes. If we ever wish in France to have burgher schools, and to carry into execution in good earnest that article in the law of 1833, which provides that primary schools of a higher grade shall be established in every town containing above 6,000 souls, and in the chief town of every department, we must endeavour to attract

pupils to them, not, as is commonly believed, by the lowness of the fees, but, on the contrary, by such a charge as will give a certain degree of distinction to those schools, and impress upon the minds of families, that they belong to the class of primary schools only so far, that Greek and Latin are not taught in them. When this is done, the cause of the higher primary schools in France will be won. Paris, after waiting three years, is at last thinking of carrying the law into effect, and of founding a school of that description; and if they will listen to the experience I have had in such matters, they will exact a fee of from fifty to one hundred francs per annum; they will give it some other name than that of *École Primaire Supérieure*; and will call it either *Ecole Moyenne*, or *Ecole Intermediaire*; and they will not be afraid to raise the scale of instruction, and by a skilful gradation, advance it to the rank of a truly liberal education, with the addition of branches useful to merchants and mechanics.

LEYDEN.

I VISITED Leyden twice ; the first time in going from The Hague to Haarlem, and the second on returning from Utrecht. It is situated in the heart of that part of Holland which lies on this side of the Zuyder Zee, and is encircled with the flourishing towns of Delft, The Hague, Haarlem, Amsterdam, and Utrecht. It is some leagues distant from the sea, and may be said to lie in the middle of the Rhine, for that river passes through it, divided into innumerable canals, which are connected by fine bridges, and are ornamented with quays planted with handsome trees. The Rhine here peacefully terminates its course, which begins about two hundred leagues off, among the mountains of the Grisons ; it is finally lost in the sand, for it can scarcely make its way to the sea at Katwyk without the assistance of sluices. Leyden was in former times a place of war, and sustained a celebrated siege : now it is a seat of learning, tranquil and silent. It is traversed nearly in its whole length by one great street, the *Breedestraat*, which is an agreeable promenade. It has not the severe grandeur which is produced by the straight line of our Rue de Rivoli, or the Rue de Castiglione ;

it has a slight curvature, which, without breaking the point of view every instant, changes it frequently, and charms the eye with its variety. The Hotel de Ville is in this street, where are several old pictures, the most valuable of which is unquestionably the Last Judgement of Lucas of Leyden. The old church of St. Peter may be considered as the museum of sculpture of the town. It contains the monuments of the illustrious men of Leyden, and among them that of Boerhaave; and one might almost read the history of the university in the inscriptions on these monuments: the last erected is that of young Beckman, a student, who was killed in the short campaign of 1831. I ought to have gone to see the collections from Japan of Professor Siebold; but the collection of antiquities from Java, by Baron Van der Capellen at Utrecht had satisfied my curiosity in that way, and I willingly left the monsters and the monuments, brought together at a vast expense from the islands of the Indian Ocean, both of which are incomprehensible to my uninformed mind, to attend to rarities of a far higher value in my eyes, the true riches of Holland,—its schools.

I visited at Leyden a French school and an intermediate school. I staid too short a time in the former, to enable me to enter into the details of it;

I can only say that, like the school at Utrecht, it is a public school, and I cannot congratulate the town of Leyden too highly on its being so ; for, if it be true, that the higher departments of primary instruction may in general be left to private teachers, it is also of consequence that there should be a French public school in every town of any importance at least ; they form the true gymnasia for the merchants and mechanics.

Next to the French school comes the intermediate school, so called, because it is a sort of middle school between the French schools and the schools for the poor. But that term has reference to the finances rather than to the subjects taught ; for it is an elementary school, like the latter : the same things are taught in both ; the French language is not taught there ; it is the branch of instruction which distinguishes the higher primary schools, and confers their distinctive title. It is intermediate in this sense, that the education is not gratuitous, as it is in general in the schools for the poor, but it is far from being so expensive as the French school. The payment is small, but still something is paid ; the consequence of which is, that the children who attend the intermediate schools are of a better description than those belonging to the wholly indigent classes, but still are not those of the reputable

tradespeople. The subjects taught are the same as in the schools for the poor, but they take more pains in teaching, and in general each division of the school has a separate room, which is very much in favour of good teaching. I found in the intermediate school of Leyden, a custom in the collection of the school fee, which is very peculiar, but I was told that it answers well: the payments are not made either monthly or weekly, or even daily, but each school-time. Thus, from nine in the morning till twelve, is the first school-time, and from two to five is the second; and the payment for each time is a cent and a half of Holland, which is equal to three French centimes, or about $\frac{5}{16}$ ths of a penny English. Paying this small fee every half day, seems less heavy than giving a larger sum all at once every week or every month. The children who attend this school therefore pay about fifteen pence per month.

To this intermediate school an evening school is attached, for the older children, who have been educated at the school, but who have been apprenticed out, and who, being occupied during the day, may come in the evening to keep up or carry on their education. The following detailed account of the present organization of this school, was drawn up after I had personally inspected it in company with Mr. Blussé, the school inspector of the Leyden district,

a very active old man, who for a long time has been at the head of the popular education in this place, and has been himself the author of all the prosperity he now enjoys, with so much and such well merited satisfaction.

The school was established in 1825. There are, at present, 480 scholars at the day school, and 130 at the evening school. They admit boys and girls of all religious denominations, even the Jews. It is under the control of the school committee of the town, and is managed by a head master, with ushers under him, and assistant teachers, together with some of the former pupils, who, having completed their studies, are candidates for the situations of assistant teachers, having chosen the profession of a schoolmaster. A special master is appointed to each each division of the school.

No pupil can be admitted into this or any other school in the kingdom, without first producing a certificate of having been vaccinated. None are received under six years of age in the day school, or under ten in the evening school. Those who absent themselves more than six times in the day school, and more than four times in the evening school, without an excuse allowed by the head master, are sent away; in the first instance by the head master, and afterwards and finally, by the school committee,

which meets once a month, to take cognizance of all matters appertaining to the school.

The school is open half an hour before the teaching commences. Lessons begin in the morning at a quarter past nine, and continue till twelve; in the afternoon at a quarter past two, and continue till half past four; in the evening at five minutes past seven, and continue till nine; and so soon as the lessons have begun, the door is closed, and no one is afterwards allowed to enter. The door being shut, the school fee is collected; and those who have forgotten to bring it, are sent out to fetch it: the money is put into a locked box, which is sent at the end of the week to the school committee.

The whole expenses of the school are defrayed by the school committee, out of the fees paid by the pupils, with the exception of the building, which is maintained at the expense of the town council. It will thus be seen, that this school, which does so much credit to the town, is a very light burden upon its finances.

At the monthly meeting of the school committee, the head master makes a report, on the wants of the school during the ensuing month; on the children who have been too frequently absent, and on those who have misconducted themselves, and have proved incorrigible by the only species of pu-

nishment allowed, which consists in removals from the usual place of the pupil in the school, and his banishment to a particular seat, where he must remain idle.

The greatest strictness is observed in regard to cleanliness; those children who come dirty are immediately sent back with a note of admonition to their parents; and if they continue to offend in this respect, they are reported to the school committee.

The school opens each time with a prayer or a psalm; or with both. At the end of the year, a formal examination takes place, which concludes with a distribution of little books and children's prints among those who have distinguished themselves, either by the progress they have made, or by general good conduct; and as many members of the town council as can attend are present on the occasion. There are five weeks of vacation in the course of the year, which are given at such times as the school committee think best.

In the day school there are six classes, and the following is the regular course of tuition:

1st CLASS. Reading, spelling, and writing on slates; numeration; bible history; mental exercises upon the plan of Lohr, and exercises for the memory by means of verses learnt by heart.

2d CLASS. The same subjects, with the addition of beginning to write on paper.

3d CLASS. The same subjects, with the addition of mental arithmetic.

4th CLASS. The same subjects, together with theoretical and practical arithmetic, and singing.

5th CLASS. The same subjects, together with grammar, geography, and the history of their own country.

6th and highest CLASS. All the subjects taught in the other classes carried out more fully.

In the evening school there are four classes :

1st CLASS. Reading, writing, and bible history.

2d CLASS. Reading, writing, bible history and arithmetic.

3d CLASS. Reading, writing on paper, theoretical and practical arithmetic, grammar, the national history, bible history, geography, singing.

4th CLASS. The same subjects, with some instruction in mechanical philosophy, and general history.

ROTTERDAM.

THE road from Leyden to Rotterdam by Delft, is not so pretty as that from Amsterdam to Utrecht, but it is nevertheless still a continued garden, and there is the same succession of country houses, with the usual inscriptions, such as Belle-vue, Peaceful Retreat, &c.

We arrived at Rotterdam in the middle of the day; and found it as stirring and animated, as it appeared silent and majestic at our first visit, which was in the middle of the night: a prodigious commercial bustle; crowds of busy people hurrying along the street, picturesque groups of vessels continually moving along; bringing vast piles of merchandize from the interior of Germany, by the waters of the Rhine and the Maese, and from the north, and from India, by the ocean, to this great entrepôt. The high street is itself a dyke, to which the whole town is attached, or as it were, suspended.

The only public building of any note is the great church, with its fine organ, and a somewhat handsome brass screen at the entrance of the choir. It contains also some monuments of historical interest. In my former visit I had only seen by moonlight the bronze statue of Erasmus, in the market place: it represents the author of the Colloquies (*Colloquia*)

and the Praise of Folly (*Stultitiæ Laudatio*) standing with a book in his hand, dressed in a doctor's gown and cap. By daylight I was not much pleased with this statue, for it has very little of the physiognomy of Erasmus; those delicate and somewhat sharp features which put one in mind of Voltaire. I was shewn the house where he was born; his parents lived at Gouda, and his birth at Rotterdam was accidental, so that there is a little rivalry between the two towns on this account.

This town, where such vast fortunes are made and accumulated, has also many poor; but they have not been neglected in the pride of wealth. The municipal government have held it to be their first duty to provide for the wants of the indigent, especially by throwing open to them asylums and schools, where they may receive all the education of which they stand in need. There is nothing remarkable in the way of public instruction in Rotterdam, except the primary instruction, which is deserving of our most serious attention.

The inspector of the primary schools, in the Rotterdam district, had been apprised by the government of our intended visit; and being expected, we met with a most cordial reception from Mr. Delprat, who put me in mind of Mr. L'Ange. I am not at all surprised that with such men, and their estimable

colleagues, Mr. Blussé of Leyden, Mr. Prinsen of Haarlem, Mr. Van Goudoever of Utrecht, and Mr. Schreuder of Gouda, the primary schools in Holland should be in so flourishing a state. Mr. Delprat is, like Mr. L'Ange, a minister of the Walloon Church, an eminent French preacher, and full of accomplishment, talent, and taste. I may have already spoken in similar terms of some other school inspector, but it is only a sense of strict justice which leads me to repeat so often the same gratifying expressions. Mr. Delprat introduced me to several members of the school committee of the town; and among them, to the Baron Mackay, a retired naval officer, and now director of the Post: a rich and influential man, thoroughly Dutch in heart and spirit, and who at an advanced age retains a surprising degree of activity, chiefly devoted to the service of the schools for the people.

What I was most desirous of seeing in Rotterdam, was that which is sometimes called, as in Germany*, the Guardian School, (*Bewaarschool*), or by the English term Infant School, (*Kleine Kinderschool*.) It was the first establishment of the sort I had seen in Holland. I might have visited the celebrated infant school at Zwolle, but it would have cost me a voyage across the Zuyder Zee: I obtained however

* Warteschule.

a copy of its regulations, and all the reports relating to it which have been published. It was only established at the end of 1828. It is wholly gratuitous, and judging from the reports before me^a, it seems to have had surprising success: this is at least certain, that it is considered in Holland to be quite a *normal* school of this description. The infant school which was established afterwards at Deventer, was formed upon the model of that at Zwolle; and when the school committee of Rotterdam had determined upon establishing one in that town, they sent the person who was to be placed at the head of it, along with the two assistants they proposed to give him, to learn the method and to acquire some experience in teaching in the school at Zwolle. There is no other infant school in Holland except these three, which is a great mistake, and is attended with very evil consequences. If gratuitous schools for the children of the poor, from five or six years of age to twelve, have been established, why not have schools for the same children from the age of two until they are old enough to go to the more advanced schools? Every primary school for the poor ought to have a gratis infant school attached to it. In this way the one is a nursery to the other; the one paves the

^a Verslag van den staat der Stads armeninrigting te Zwolle, 1 June, 1830.—Tweede Verslag, etc., 1 Aug. 1834.

way for the other, and both together constitute one and the same establishment. It would be well, too, if to every primary school, where the children pay, an infant school of the same kind were attached. Care however must be taken in either school not to mix the children who pay with the *gratis* scholars: the poorer class are humbled by the contrast, and you keep back those who can afford to pay, and who do not like the idea of sending their children to a *gratis* school; there is also some disadvantage in placing a child of decent habits and appearance by the side of children of vulgar manners, who although clean, are coarsely attired. Nor will it do to have them in different rooms in the same establishment. The *gratis* infant school and the school in which children pay, must be in separate buildings. The *gratis* infant school is most wanted, and it is also more easily established than the other. All that is necessary is to insist upon great cleanliness without being over nice; a little elementary instruction and a great variety of games that contribute to health. The children in such a school should be treated as if they were in a respectable poor family, for if the school gives any distaste for the fire-side at home, it does more harm than good. The infant school where the children pay should be got up with a little more care, without carrying it too far; so that the mother of a family

who, although in tolerably easy circumstances, may for some reason or other feel inclined not to keep her children in the house, may send them to a convenient place where they will be out of harm's way, and where they will associate with children of the same class as themselves. Not having been either at Zwolle or at Deventer, I did not see a gratis infant school, for at Rotterdam the children pay. I examined it with the greatest attention in all its arrangements.

There is an entrance hall, on the left of which is a small room, where the children are washed, and every thing else is attended to which cleanliness requires, and, on the right, another room which is properly the school; it is large and well ventilated, but its neatness approaches a little too much towards elegance. There were about a hundred children in three divisions, the one consisting of those about two years of age, another of those who were somewhat older; and the third of such as were from five to six years old. Each of these divisions is under the management of an under mistress; and over these three persons there is a directress or head-mistress, who is always present, and has the general care of the school. They teach the children to read, and a little arithmetic; and their intelligence is exercised by seeing a great number and

variety of natural objects, or tolerably correct representations of them. They do not write on paper, but they trace letters upon slates. At one end of this school-room there is another room, where the children play in winter and in bad weather, and outside, there is a pretty large gravelled court for them in fine weather. It is a large number of teachers for so small a number of children, but the room is capable of containing many more than a hundred. Each child pays twopence a-week.

The infant school occupies the whole of the ground floor of the house. They intend to have on the first floor a paying elementary school, for the same class of children as those who come to the infant school. The vicinity of the two is very suitable, and it would be a great advantage if they were likewise to have on the premises a French school, where the fees should be somewhat high, and which should be in all respects in high order. Were that done, there would then be in Rotterdam a true model of a complete establishment of primary instruction for the middle ranks. I recommended the adoption of such a plan, and not without some hopes of success, to my respected guides, and to the proprietor of the house, who was himself a member of the school committee.

After seeing the infant school, I was desirous of visiting the schools for the poor, and asked Mr.

Delprat and Baron Mackay to shew me the most numerous and best conducted one, and they took me to a school where there were a thousand children. It differed from any school I had yet seen in Holland, inasmuch as it is in the house belonging to the guardians of the poor of the town^a. Some works are carried on in the house, and relief is distributed here to those who are on the poor's roll, of which circumstance advantage is taken to induce the poor to send their children to school, for relief is withheld from every poor family of that quarter of the town that neglects to send their children to this school. The obligation to go to school, which is imposed by law in Germany (*Schulpflichtigkeit*) upon the children of all classes, is in this case imposed upon the children of the poor; and there cannot be a question of the excellence of such a measure, within those limits, and applicable to that class of the people. A beginning might be made in this way in France, and if in all the great towns, the guardians of the poor would have the wisdom and the courage, not merely to recommend, but to require those families to whom they grant relief to send their children to the infant and gratis elementary schools, they might, without any special law, and

^a *Bureau de bienfaisance.*

without noise, confer, in a very few years, an immense benefit, not only on the poor, but on the whole mass of society, and with no additional expense. When I found this union of workhouse and school, I said to my companions—"What an admirable combination might be formed in this establishment, if they were to have a gratis infant school." I trust that my words may produce some effect, and obtain for the poor-house of Rotterdam the only, but at the same time indispensable, thing wanting to render it complete.

I expected to find here, as at The Hague and at Amsterdam, that the thousand children would be collected in one room; but I was agreeably disappointed. The sections into which this very numerous school is divided are on different stories of the house, and on every story there are separate rooms for each class in the section. The head master has several ushers and assistants under him, and even some apprenticed teachers. The plan of simultaneous teaching is followed here, in the same manner as at Amsterdam, with the addition of a little mutual instruction, in the repetition of the inferior and mechanical parts of the education.

My next inquiry related to the intermediate schools. These were formerly left in Holland to individual enterprise, and they were almost universally private

undertakings. That distribution of primary instruction may seem all very well in theory ; but let us see what the consequences of it in practice were, and which time did not fail to produce.

The schools for the poor were not only supported, but instituted and governed by public authority ; the regulations under which they were conducted were drawn up by men skilled in such matters ; they were strictly followed, the discipline was excellent, and if the subjects taught were limited, they conveyed solid instruction. The schools for the poor therefore soon became, in several places, superior to the schools established on private account, and hence arose a serious derangement in the right order of things, for the children of the middle ranks were worse educated than the children of the poor ; an inconsistency which, in the long run, might have led to social disorder. The necessity of averting such a danger was felt, and the towns established public intermediate schools.

The town of Rotterdam has two schools of this description, besides those which private competition had set up. There was at first a rivalry between these different schools ; but afterwards, and this was the essential point, those families who were either not very poor, or who, in their poverty, were too proud

to send their children to the schools for the poor, not being able to pay the high rates of the greater number of the private schools, were able to obtain in those public schools, for a moderate price, an education suited to their views and to their circumstances. In this way the town of Rotterdam has rendered a very important service to a very interesting portion of the middle classes, and without any further outlay than an advance of capital, which was very soon repaid, by the rapid success which attended these two new establishments. I have before me an account of their receipts and expenditure for the year 1835, shewing an excess of revenue ; which has been applied to the infant school I have just described. The financial accounts of these two schools stand thus :—

I. EXPENSES.

1. Salaries of two head masters, at 1400 florins for each, together with an allowance of 200 florins to each for a house.....*fl.*3200 0

2. Salaries of the under masters, at the maximum rate of 350 florins, and salaries and donations to the apprenticed under masters,
 School, No. 1, 753*fl.* }
 School, No. 2, 1035 75 } 1788 75

Carried forward *fl.*4988 75

Brought forward	<i>fl.</i> 4988	75
3. Two mistresses for teaching sewing to the girls of both schools.....	402	0
4. Paper, books, ink, pens, and slates for both schools.....	614	31
5. Fuel, and light for both schools.....	398	30
Total expenses.....	<i>fl.</i> 6,403	36

or about £534 sterling.

(The building is supplied and kept up by the town.)

II. RECEIPTS.

These are derived from the pupils, each of whom pays weekly 20 cents, equal to about fourpence English.

1. From the school No. 1, which
is attended by about 400 children. *fl.*3,000 90

From the sewing class, which
meets in the evening, for six
months; instituted only last July. 44 0

*fl.*3044 90

2. From the school No. 2, which
is attended by about 480 children. 3926 40

From the sewing class, insti-
tuted in January 1835, at 5 cents
per week..... 230 20

4156 60

Total receipts from both schools..... 7201 50

(about £600.)

Expenses..... 6403 36

Surplus (about £66 10s.)..... *fl.* 798 14

Here then we have two schools, educating nearly

900 children, with ten or twelve masters, ushers and assistants, and two under-mistresses, without any expense to the town, and supported entirely, and in a flourishing condition, by a weekly payment of twenty cents or fourpence English, from each pupil. Two children out of the same family pay only fifteen cents each, and if there be three, the payment is only ten cents with each. The girls in the upper class are instructed in the evening in needle-work, &c., paying an addition of only five cents, or a penny per week. These fees are extremely moderate: there is not a family above the wholly indigent class, for whom the schools for the poor are destined, that cannot afford to pay fourpence a week; and in some towns, as at Leyden*, for example, these payments are received by instalments of daily or half-daily proportions, which reduces the expense to almost nothing. Yet these fees, small though they be, satisfy the pride of the parents; they are the means of keeping the children at the school, and are a guarantee against absences, as people like to get the full value of their money: and at the same time that they defray the expense of the education of the middle classes, they allow the town to apply its resources to the education of that class of the people who cannot afford to pay any thing, and to whom gratuitous edu-

* See p. 95.

cation is in such circumstances a sacred debt. If gratis primary schools be inconsiderably multiplied, the parishes are burthened with constantly increasing expenses, which gradually exhaust and dry up the sources of charity. Charity, rightly understood, consists in giving things for nothing to those who have nothing to pay with in return, and in giving them at a cheap rate to those who can afford to pay something. In Paris, all the parochial schools are gratuitous, and there is not a single public primary school where the children pay any thing ; whereas the cheapest private schools cost nearly five francs (four shillings and two-pence) a month, so that there is nothing intermediate between gratuitous education and a somewhat expensive school. A workman who has several children can scarcely afford to send them to a private school, and he is ashamed to send them to a gratuitous school and have his name entered on the official list of the poor. Nor must it be forgotten, that the masters of those schools in France, in which the children pay nothing, have no other source of income than their salary. That salary has been raised from 12 to 1,800 francs, (from £50, to £75) which is a great deal for the town, but too little for the master and his family ; whereas the masters of the private schools get much more, and see their incomes rise in proportion to their skill and activity as teachers. A larger amount of good might be done at a less expense, by

having public schools better adapted to the various wants of the population. We have gratis parochial schools enough ; for many of these, notwithstanding the ability of the masters, have a very small number of pupils. In place of having 1,000 children in one school for the poor, there ought not to be more than 300 ; and a few schools of this description would suffice in each *Arrondissement*, if those only were admitted who ought to be admitted, that is to say, the really indigent ; who are almost all known at the poor-house.

I will take this opportunity of expressing what I feel upon this subject. God forbid that I should ever think of excluding any one from the benefit of education : so far from such being my sentiments, I shall never cease to call upon all those in easy circumstances, all enlightened men, without distinction of creed or of system, to unite in this great work ; but I freely confess, and I do so with a full knowledge of the danger I run by such an avowal, that I would entrust the parochial schools, which are wholly gratuitous, to the special care of the Brethren of the Christian Doctrine^a, in the same manner as we confide the care of the sick in our hospitals to the Sisters of Charity. In the first place, these Brethren are, by their statutes, consecrated to the service of the people ; and, on that account, the

^a See p. 86.

people are naturally kindly disposed towards them. Our common people are proud, and do not like to be looked down upon; and, with the best intentions in the world, there is a danger of our seeming to look down upon them, from mere difference of manners. "The Brethren do not think meanly of us," they say. The very appearance of these good men, that clownish and vulgar aspect which exposes them to ridicule, their humility, their patience, and above all, their poverty and entire disinterestedness,—for they possess no individual property,—bring them in more direct contact with the people among whom they live, and secure them a welcome reception. Common people and children require boundless patience; and whoever is not fully endowed with this virtue, ought never to dream of being a schoolmaster. Further, the Brethren are bound by their statutes to teach gratuitously: they are prohibited from taking any thing from the children, and they are satisfied with a trifle for themselves and for their schools. They are a class of persons made expressly for teaching gratis primary schools, and it is but reasonable to confide the schools for the poor to them, as they cannot become masters in any other. But along with those schools for the poor, there ought to be in every *Arrondissement* a nearly equal number of public primary schools where the pupils pay:

these ought to be taught by lay-teachers, who, in addition to their salaries, should receive moderate fees from their scholars, so as to secure them a prospective income proportioned to their zeal and success. These masters, who for the greater part of their lives would be fathers of families, would thus be able to live in a respectable way; and the town would have public pay schools which would become models for the schools of private individuals, even of a much more expensive kind. Besides these public elementary schools, at which the pupils would pay something, there should be in every *Arrondissement*, either under the name of intermediate school or middle school, or some better name, a higher primary school, where the fees should be larger, for the mercantile and trading part of the community, who are in easy circumstances, but who neither do nor ought to send their sons to the grammar schools (*Collèges*) to be taught the learned languages, which would be of no use to them. All these schools, far from being a burthen upon the town, would by the payment of suitable fees become a source of profit; and those profits might be applied to the support of infant schools and schools for the poor. Under such a system, which would be conformable to the spirit of the law, the town would have some additional charges laid upon it, but it would be re-

lieved from others, and whatever it spent in this way would produce results that would have a direct utility. But I must leave off discoursing about Paris and return to Rotterdam.

I saw a charitable institution at Rotterdam, so singular in its nature, and where primary instruction forms so important a part, that I must say a few words respecting it; I mean the penitentiary for young boys. I shall give a sufficiently correct notion of the excellent system upon which the prisons in Holland are managed, by saying, that the central prisons are divided into two classes, the one for young people below eighteen or twenty years of age, the other for older persons. The central penitentiary for young persons, established at Rotterdam, used to receive young prisoners of both sexes; they were rigidly separated from each other in the court yards; and in the rooms where they got their meals, and there were distinct schools for each sex. In spite of all these precautions, however, experience demonstrated the necessity of separating them entirely, and of having one penitentiary for boys and another for girls. The girls are at Amsterdam; the boys at Rotterdam. I examined the last with the most minute attention.

The object which they have in view in those

places, is not only to make the young people submissive and correct in their conduct during the time of their imprisonment, but to improve them. The imprisonment itself, and the severity of the discipline, constitute the just punishment for the offence; for it is indispensable that there should be punishment. But the chastisement would not be adapted to its proper end, if it did not tend to improve the criminal, and every possible care is taken that the prison should deserve the title of a penitentiary. They work upon the young offenders by the combined effects of the prison discipline; 1st, by the discipline to which they are subjected, in order to give them notions of order and of submission to authority; and 2dly, by the labour they have to go through, for which purpose there are workshops of different kinds. The system of the house is military; all the officers are dressed in uniform, and preserve a grave and decent deportment, which of itself is an excellent lesson. The diet is wholesome, but very coarse; and so it ought to be. There is not a separate cell for each prisoner, but the dormitories have only a small number of beds, which are all hammocks, and every thing was clean and conveniently arranged. I should have seen things better, if I had had the advantage of being accompanied by my honourable friend and

brother academician, Mr. Berenger*, who would have assisted me greatly in interrogating my guides. At all events, I am a competent judge of the school which is in the house; and it is that which is the great instrument of amelioration.

This school consists of about sixty young prisoners, all dressed alike in coarse but clean linen jackets and trousers. I was very much struck with the progress which their copy books shewed they had made, and frequently in a very short time; and I was particularly pleased with their singing. We must, however, recollect that it was not in intelligence these youths were wanting. The master is a young man, with a grave and mild manner, who seems like the father of his pupils. It had been proposed to give him one of the gaolers as an assistant to keep order; this he declined, assigning as a reason, that it would look as if he was afraid; and so he manages the whole school himself. He devotes his whole life to this sacred duty: he knows every one of his pupils individually, and endeavours to gain their confidence. He does not lose sight of them even after they have left the house, but continues to look after them;

* See in the 1st Vol., 2d Series, of the "*Memoires de l'Academie des Sciences Morales et Politiques*," a very remarkable paper by Mr. Berenger, "On the proper means of introducing a general penitentiary system in France."

they get situations upon his recommendation, and he keeps up a regular correspondence with every one of them. But such a system would be impossible, if the pupils were not limited to a small number; were not this the case, all that one man could do would be to instruct them as well as he could, so long as they remained under his immediate care; and it would be impossible for him to look after them in their future career. If, in such an establishment, the number of prisoners be considerable, they ought to be carefully separated, and committed, in divisions of fifty or sixty at most, to the care of one master, who should be specially charged, not only with the duty of instructing them, but with their education, and who should be not only responsible for them at the time, but should continue to watch over them afterwards.

I was surprised to learn, that this central prison for boys, the only one in all Holland, did not then contain more than from sixty to eighty prisoners; so that, adding seventy, who were expected from a depôt at Leyden, there were, at most, only 150*, out of a population of 2,500,000! To find a solution

* Many of these juvenile offenders were mere vagabonds, whom the tribunals do not hesitate to commit to prison, because they know the pains that will be bestowed on their moral education in the penitentiary.

of this phænomenon, I had only to reflect upon the excellent schools I had every where met with. The charges upon the towns for the support of the schools produce then this result, that there are fewer offences and fewer crimes ; and consequently less to pay for police, and for the prevention and punishment of crime. In Rotterdam, a commercial town, of nearly 100,000 inhabitants, filled with merchandize, and where the number of canals and bridges afford great facilities to depredators, robberies are rare, and burglaries, accompanied by acts of violence, so much so, that the gentlemen who accompanied us, assured me, that it would be very difficult for them to mention any. It is with grief that I contemplate the mistaken zeal, the illogical reasoning of certain philanthropists, and even of certain governments, who bestow so much pains upon prisons, and neglect schools : they allow crime to spring up and vicious habits to take root, by the utter neglect of all moral training and of all education in children ; and when crime is grown and is strong, and full of life, they attempt to cope with it ; they try to subdue it by the terror of punishment, or to mitigate it, in some degree, by gentleness and kindness. After having exhausted all their resources, both of thought and of money, they are astonished to find that their efforts are vain ; and why, because all they do is in direct opposition to common

sense. To correct is very important, but to prevent is far more so. The seeds of morality and of piety must be early sown in the heart of the child, in order that they may be found again and be made to shoot forth in the breast of the man, whom adverse circumstances may have brought under the avenging hand of the law. To educate the people is the necessary foundation of all good prison discipline. It is not the purpose of a penitentiary to change monsters into men; but to revive in the breasts of those who have gone astray, the principles which were taught and inculcated to them in their youth, and which they acknowledged and carried into practice in former days, in the schools of their infancy, before passion and wretchedness, and bad example, and the evil chances of life had hurried them away from the paths of rectitude. To correct, we must excite remorse, and awaken the voice of conscience; but how can we recall a sound that had never been heard? how are we to revive a language that had never been taught? If to demonstrate presupposes principles already agreed upon, if we are to correct, we must also presuppose an admitted rule; some feeling of obligation and of duty; a knowledge of good and evil; which, though forgotten, has not been rooted out; some pre-existent virtuous habits, which are to be brought back by judicious treatment, and be made to triumph

over those more recently acquired, which had shut out the earlier and better feelings. I approve of, nay, I bless with my whole heart, every kind of penitentiary; but I consider that they must for ever remain almost fruitless, unless their power to reclaim is made to rest upon the effect of schools for the people universally established, attendance upon which is obligatory, and where instruction is considered as only one of the means of education.

During my short stay at Rotterdam, my mornings were spent in the way I have described; and I passed the evening at the houses of Mr. Delprat and the Baron Mackay, talking of all that we had seen together in the course of the day. We were a party of five only, and being all zealous friends of the education of the people, we communicated our thoughts to each other with entire freedom; I especially, seeking by unceasing questions to avail myself of the experience of two such accomplished masters of the art, as Mr. Delprat and Mr. Schreuder; and they satisfying all my enquiries by their profound knowledge of the subject, and with a degree of patience and readiness which I must ascribe less to their great kindness towards a stranger, than to their devotion to the sacred cause in which we were mutually interested. Mr. Delprat and Baron Mackay both live on the beautiful quay along the Maese,

which is as wide here as an arm of the sea. The water of the river was only discernible by the reflected light of a splendid moon, the darkness of the night concealing the opposite shore. The town was laid in profound repose, and from the window where I sat, I enjoyed, by turns, the contemplation of that peaceful scene, and a quiet but animated conversation upon the greatest subject which wise men can choose as a subject for meditation, the education of their fellow creatures. The recollection of Cuvier, who, five and twenty years ago, had preceded me in the same country, and in the same object of research, which was ever present to my mind, but was more particularly vivid at that moment, gave a character approaching to solemnity to those conversations, the last which I was to have in Holland. I, on that occasion, finished my inquiries, and endeavoured to perfect the knowledge which my journey had laid open to me regarding public instruction, and particularly primary instruction, in a country where it is carried to so high a degree of excellence. It was a kind of bidding adieu to Holland; and it has left an impression upon me which can never be effaced.

Next day, the 29th of September, with feelings of deep regret, mingled with sincere gratitude, I parted from the accomplished gentleman whom the Dutch government had appointed to be my guide. Mr.

Schreuder's kindness to me throughout the journey, which was often attended with annoyances, was unwearied; and the intimate intercourse I had with him, showed him to be one of the ablest men connected with practical education whom I have ever known.

I returned by the same route as I came to Holland; after again seeing the cathedral of Antwerp, and devoting some days to visit Malines, Ghent, and Bruges, in order that I might once more feast my eyes with the multifarious wonders of the Flemish school, I returned to Paris by Lille and Amiens, and am now again settled in my peaceful Sorbonne; having brought back from my rapid and somewhat ✓
fatiguing journey, impressions and observations which have increased my humble store of experience on the subject of public instruction.

This journal, which has been put together from ✓
notes hastily taken on the spot, has, at least, the merit of scrupulous fidelity. I have related nothing which I did not either see with my own eyes, or hear with my own ears. I have not put words into the mouth of any one which were not spoken by him, and the reflections, which are mixed up with the narrative, arose spontaneously with the facts. These facts, taken by themselves, place in a sufficiently clear light, the flourishing state of public

instruction in Holland, and especially that of the primary schools ; but I must now refer them to their causes, and trace out the principles which have produced such great results ; results which were brought to light by Cuvier twenty-five years ago, and which I have now verified ; I must redeem the promise I made at The Hague, to bring out and fill up my rapid sketches, by an exposition and examination of those laws upon which the whole system of public instruction in the Netherlands is founded.

OBSERVATIONS

ON THE

LAWS OF HOLLAND RELATIVE TO PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

I. GENERAL ORGANIZATION OF THE PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.


In a country so small as Holland, which in its ten provinces^a does not contain more than two millions and a half of inhabitants, a separate minister of public instruction was not necessary, and it is accordingly under the charge of the Minister of the Interior. At the head of that department of his office, there is a *Referendaire*, who communicates with the minister, and, along with him, an inspector of the Latin and the primary schools: this last functionary is the mainspring of the public instruction. This constitutes the whole central board of education in Holland. There is no council, and there are no inspectors general, except the one just mentioned;

^a North Holland, South Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, Groningen, Drenthe, Over-Yssel, Brabant, and Limbourg.

and he, at present, is Mr. Wynbeek. The reasons assigned for this arrangement are: 1st, the limited extent of the country; 2dly, the available local power, and the habits of the people in the different provinces; and 3dly, the existence of a law on primary instruction, and of a royal ordinance on the higher branches of education, both of which are most faithfully carried into effect, and which appear to work well under the authorities thereby established. The central organization has, however, been altered more than once, even since 1815, and it is not constituted by any particular law or ordinance. Thus, in 1815, there was a kind of special Minister of Public Instruction in Mr. Repelaer van Driel, who was called commissary general of education, arts, and sciences; and that office continued until 1818, when Mr. Falck was appointed Minister of Public Instruction; and then trade and the colonies were added to the department. That was again changed, and the present order of things was established and has continued ever since.

But it is precisely because public instruction is merged in the Ministry of the Interior, that it is desirable there should be a council specially charged with the strict execution of the existing regulations, to prepare alterations in these when a necessity arises, to establish one fixed system of jurisprudence

in all the decisions of the central administration, and thus give an uniform and powerful impulse to public education. It will be seen presently, that the primary schools are under the direction of a body of this description. A meeting of a certain number of the provincial school-inspectors is held from time to time at The Hague; they are formed into a council with the Minister of the Interior as their president, and all such measures as the public service may require are brought under their consideration. There seems no reason why there should not be a similar council for the higher departments of education. There is by law a particular council for the mint, and does not public instruction equally stand in need of a general and constant supervision? There is not in all Germany, I do not say a single kingdom, but a single duchy of any importance, where a council of this sort does not exist, under one name or another, but generally called a consistory. In France, the Royal Council forms an integral part of the organization of public instruction; it acts as a regulator in the midst of the perpetual commotions to which politics give rise, and but for that institution, which was established in 1808, public instruction would have changed its direction a hundred times; with every change of its directors and of the administration, it would have gone from one thing to another, according to the



✓ prevailing fashion of the day in literature, and been subject to the dominant parties in religion and politics, to revolutions in administrations and in the government itself. Unity in national character can only be secured by unity in national education; and such unity can only be obtained by means of a permanent council, constituting as it were the high court of appeal in questions concerning public instruction. In Holland they have less to contend against a spirit of inconsiderate activity, than against a habit of routine and a certain degree of apathy, arising out of the phlegmatic nature of the people. A permanent council having an eye constantly open to abuses, and which should unceasingly endeavour to prevent or correct them, would of itself be useful, at all events a council which should meet from time to time is indispensable; and I venture to suggest to the government of Holland, that, conformably to the precedent of the primary schools, an annual or triennial meeting should be held at The Hague of a given number of the curators of the Latin schools and universities, to deliberate upon the affairs of the higher institutions of education, and to concert such general measures as the experience of the several members may suggest. If that course be not adopted, we must choose between the arbitrary will of the government, and the uncontrolled power of local

magistracies. As a medium between these extremes, equally injurious to the dignity and the progress of science and literature, the wisdom of Germany and the genius of Napoleon interposed a council invested with appropriate authority.

II. PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

Fifty years ago primary instruction was nearly in the same state in Holland as it was in the rest of Europe. The happy change which has taken place is mainly due to the enlightened and unwearied efforts of that society in Holland, which has acquired so much celebrity under the title of *Tot nut van 't Algemeen*, "For the general good." Following its example and guided by its councils, the government early in the present century took in hand the cause of the education of the people. The illustrious oriental scholar, Mr. Van der Palm, who was appointed Commissioner of Public Instruction for the Batavian Republic, led the way, and drew up the first law, which was passed on the 15th of June, 1801, and laid the foundation of all the laws subsequently adopted. At a later period, Mr. Van der Palm, while a member of the council for the Home Department, and as such, having charge of the public instruction, brought forward, and

carried through, on the 19th of July, 1803, a second law, to alter that of 1801; in conformity with the spirit of those changes which had occurred in the interval. In 1805, another change placed Mr. Schimmelpenninck at the head of the Batavian Republic, with the title of Grand Pensionary, abolished the council for the Home Department, and interrupted the political career of Mr. Van der Palm, who withdrew entirely from public affairs. The Grand Pensionary appointed a Secretary of State for the Home Department, and assigned to him the duties that had belonged to the Commissioner of public instruction, attaching to his office a Chief Commissioner for the primary schools. Mr. Van den Ende received this appointment of Commissioner. He had been constantly engaged in almost the same duties from the year 1800, under the Commissioner of Public Instruction, and under the Minister of the Interior. From that period to 1833, Mr. Van den Ende continued at the head of the primary instruction in Holland; he finished the work which Mr. Van der Palm had begun; modifying it, and rendering it more perfect. This is the origin of the law presented by the Grand Pensionary to the chamber of representatives of the Batavian Republic on the 19th November, 1805, which was adopted by them on the 25th of February, 1806, and on the 3rd April of the

same year was promulgated by the Grand Pensionary as a law of the state, together with the general regulations which the law authorized the government to frame, and which are consequently incorporated in the law itself^a.

This code of primary instruction was founded on principles so wise, had so much unity in all its parts, was so conformable to the spirit of the people, and adapted itself so easily, by the generality of its principles, to the customs and habits of the different provinces, how dissimilar soever they might be, that it has continued to the present time without any important alteration, and has survived three great revolutions: first, that which converted the Batavian Republic into a kingdom, at first independent, but afterwards incorporated with the French empire; next, that which dethroned Louis, restored the house of Orange, and united Holland and Belgium in one monarchy; and lastly, the revolution which again separated the two countries, and restricted the kingdom of the Netherlands to its former limits. During these thirty years, the law of 1806 was never interfered with; it could only be altered by another law, and when the government in 1829, in order to please the Belgian liberal party, brought forward a new gene-

^a Appendix A.

ral law, which made some very objectionable changes in that of 1806, the chambers resisted, and the government were obliged to withdraw the bill.

The code of primary instruction of 1806 has thus remained undisturbed; it has undergone no modification, has received no addition, nor has any new interpretation been put upon it; it has governed, and continues to govern the whole of the primary schools in Holland; all the provincial regulations are framed upon it, and those of each individual school are founded upon the law itself, and the provincial regulations. The law and its own general regulations, the provincial regulations, and the regulations of the individual schools, have been so little altered, that I found them in 1836, very nearly what Cuvier had found them in 1811; with this difference only, that the whole system has acquired a development and a firmness of structure which time only can give to such institutions. All the good that has been accomplished, is to be ascribed to the efficacy of the law of 1806, and the general regulations annexed to it; and I shall therefore now proceed to examine both.

When we compare that law and its four regulations with the Prussian law of 1819,—the two greatest monuments to the cause of popular education yet existing in the world,—the first thing that

strikes us is this marked difference between them, that most of the objects which, in Holland, are left to be provided for by regulation, in Prussia form part of the law itself. In Prussia, every thing of general application is found in the law : in Holland, the general provisions are divided into two classes, those which belong to the law, and those which belong to the four regulations. In Prussia, where there is no representative government, the distinction between a law and an ordinance is unknown ; but in Holland, where the form of government has introduced that distinction, one of two things was to be done ; the law must either contain every thing of general application, as is the case in France in the law of 1833, with the risk of having amendments inserted, during its discussion in a numerous assembly of men little conversant with such matters, as would utterly destroy the best devised schemes,—an evil very nearly being realized with us in some of the most essential points, and which, in fact, did befall some regulations of considerable importance ;—or, in order to avoid that danger, to choose among provisions which were both necessary and of a general character, those in which legislative intervention could not be dispensed with, inasmuch as all subordinate regulations depend upon them ; the principles, in short, upon which the whole system

must be founded. The Dutch government adopted the latter course; and then the question of highest interest and of the greatest difficulty in the organization of the system had to be solved, viz., what are the principles which must be held to constitute the soul and life of the whole system? This is the peculiar and distinctive character of the Dutch law.

What then are the enactments of this law? It does not treat of the different conditions of the public and the private schools, and of all that relates to the question so much agitated among us about freedom of teaching; because that question is purely a political one, and does not essentially relate to the education of the people: nor does it treat of the obligations which parishes (*communes*) lie under as to schools; because this also is, after all, a matter of finance, which, although it concerns the existence of schools, has nothing to do with their usefulness; and the important object is, not merely to have schools, but to have good schools; to have no school at all in a parish is a disadvantage, but a bad school is a calamity. Lastly, there is nothing in the Dutch law relative to the emoluments of the teachers. This last is, most assuredly, a matter of the highest importance; for if they can only look forward to an uncertain and unhappy lot, clever men will not become schoolmasters, and we may then bid adieu to

all good primary instruction. A master may undoubtedly be highly paid and know little, unless some authority be interposed to prevent this as well as other abuses. A superintending power is the main spring of all primary schools; a moment's reflection will satisfy any one that the whole must hinge upon it. The government is doubtless made for the society, but the progress of every society must depend upon its government; if a society is to be formed, we must begin by establishing the government; and if the education of the people is to be seriously taken up, we may rest assured that the whole vigour and life of that education will depend upon the system by which it is to be regulated. If it be weak and insecure, the primary schools will make no advance: they may, by some transient circumstances, have a momentary success, but there will be no security that they do not speedily fall back into a deplorable state of languor. If, however, these schools are placed under a vigorous and active government, the spirit of that government will be communicated to every part of the machine, and will impart to it motion and life. In the Prussian law, the superintending authorities are also provided for; but the Dutch law has this distinctive character, that it relates almost wholly to this fundamental point. There was in this something bold as well as practical: I say

bold, because certainly nothing can be more repugnant to our notions than to pass a law upon any subject whatsoever, merely to constitute the authority under which the principle is to be carried out. But take away that superintending power, and what becomes of all the rest? The Dutch legislators made no attempt at a masterpiece of codification, in which the whole subject of primary instruction was to be divided and classed according to the rules of philosophical analysis: they went straight to their point, by the shortest and the safest road; and as inspection must be the fundamental basis of primary schools, it was inspection which they established by law.

This is the great point of all, and, alas! it is that vital point (I say it with regret) in which the French law is so defective. The bill, as brought in by the government, confided the inspection to two committees in each department, the one local and parochial, (*communal*), the other situated in the *arrondissement*; stimulating, watching over, all the local committees, and deciding upon all important questions. Such an organization is excellent in itself, but it has been vitiated; *First*, by substituting, in most respects, the town councils for the parochial committees; which municipal councils are elected for objects totally distinct from education, and which,

although they ought to have a voice in the parochial committee, now absorb nearly the whole power; an enormous defect, which I take credit to myself for having combated with all my might, and against which I protested to the very last: *Secondly*, by nominating too many *ex officio* members in the committee of the *arrondissement*; the consequence of which has been that these committees, although composed of well intentioned and enlightened men, have very frequently been very inactive, because the greater number of the members have other things to attend to. If they were to do nothing, government could not interfere; for they are there by right, and government cannot replace these useless members by others of more leisure and activity. These committees are, moreover, gratuitous. Gratuitous committees are established both by the Prussian and the Dutch law; but by the former there is a smaller number of *ex officio* members than by the French law, and there are none by the law of Holland. There, the members of a school committee are chosen, not because they held this or that office, but on account of their fitness for the duty; an immense difference. But there is another still greater, for besides the gratuitous committees, there are, by the law both of Prussia and of Holland, salaried officers, called inspectors, selected because they

are found to possess the requisite qualifications, who are responsible to government for the whole of the primary schools within a given district. This is the true kind of government for primary schools, and to determine how the organization of that government shall be most skilfully contrived is, in my mind, the vital question in a system of popular education. Now, in France, there is not a word in the law respecting such an inspection; at a later period it was introduced in an indirect way, and, thank God, it now exists: and imperfect though it be, still we have it, and all our efforts must be directed to organize it, to extend it, and to render it more perfect. The grant in the budget must be gradually converted into a great and permanent provision, and with that view we cannot too carefully study the principles and the effects of the Prussian law, and more especially that of Holland.

It would be difficult to imagine a more efficient system of inspection than that in Holland. Each province, or in the language of our administrative divisions of France, each department has its own departmental commission for primary schools. It consists of all the inspectors of the several school districts into which the province is divided. No one of these districts is equal in extent to one of our *arrondissemens*, and they are all somewhat larger

than one of our *cantons*. Every inspector resides in his own district, and he is bound to inspect every school at least twice a year, and he has jurisdiction over the primary schools of every grade within the district. Without his approval, no one can be either a public or a private teacher; and no public or private teacher can retain his situation, or be promoted, or receive any gratification unless with his approbation; for no commissioner has any power in his absence, and he is either the chairman or the influential member of all meetings that are held. He is thus at the head of the whole of the primary instruction in his particular district. He is required to repair three times a year to the chief town of the province, to meet the other district inspectors of the province, and a conference is held with the governor of the province presiding, which lasts for a fortnight or three weeks; during which time each inspector reads a report upon the state of his district, and brings before the meeting all such questions as belong to them. As each province has its own particular code of regulations for its primary schools, founded upon the law and its general regulations, the provincial board examines whether all the proceedings of the several inspectors have been conformable to that particular code; they look to the

strict and uniform execution of the code, they pass such measures as belong to them to originate, and they draw up the annual report which is to be presented to the central administration, and submit such amendments as appear to them necessary or useful, and of which the central administration is constituted the judge. Under the Minister of the Interior there is a high functionary, the Inspector-General of Primary Instruction ; and from time to time a general meeting is summoned by the government to be held at The Hague, to which each provincial board sends a deputy ; and thus, from the inspector general at The Hague down to the local inspector of the smallest district, the whole of the primary instruction is under the direction of inspectors. Each inspector has charge of his own district ; each provincial board has charge of its province ; and the general meeting, which may be called the assembly of the states general of primary instruction, has charge of the whole kingdom. All these authorities are in their several degrees analogous in their nature ; for all are public functionaries, all are paid and responsible officers. The district inspector is responsible to the provincial board of commissioners ; and they are responsible to the Inspector-General and the Minister of the Interior. In this

learned and very simple hierarchy, the powers of every member are clearly defined and limited.

But the extent of influence which the district inspectors exercise cannot be fully appreciated until we know by what steps, according to the law of 1806, a man can become a master of a primary school, whether public or private. According to that law, before a man can exercise the calling of a school-master, two conditions are necessary, viz. general admission, and special admission: these two conditions are equally requisite in Prussia in the case of the secondary instruction. In France, whoever has once passed an examination of competency, and has obtained, at any period of his life, the license of a primary teacher, has a right to open a school wherever he pleases, from one end of France to the other, provided he have a certificate of good character, which is never refused by the authorities to any one who wishes to leave the *commune*; and he can even be appointed as a public teacher without undergoing a new examination. The inspector has very little to say either in the one case or the other; his voice has little influence when the license of competency is granted, because he is but one of a numerous body of examiners, all of whom are strangers to him; and he has still less influence in the appointment of the

public teacher, being neither a member of the town council who recommends the candidate, nor of the council of the *arrondissement* who give the nomination ; so that a man may be either a public or a private teacher not only without the intervention of the inspector but in spite of it. Farther, neither the public nor the private teacher in France has any thing to fear from the inspector, during the whole of his career ; for although the inspector may in the exercise of his official duty complain of a teacher, he has no right formally to accuse him before the *arrondissement* committee, still less to interfere in any way with their sentence of temporary suspension or dismissal. It is quite otherwise in Holland : *First*, the general admission, which is equivalent to our license of competency, (*Brevet de Capacité*), is granted after an examination which takes place before the provincial board, composed exclusively of the inspectors of the district. Unless he obtains that general admission, no one is entitled to be a candidate for a situation, and that general admission is conferred by the inspectors only ; so that they are posted at the very threshold of the schoolmaster's career, and nothing can be more wise, or better conceived. *Secondly*, if the person who has thus got his license wishes to become a private teacher, he must obtain leave from the muni-

cipal authorities ; and that leave is never granted except upon the recommendation of the inspector. If on the other hand he wishes to become a candidate for a public situation, matters are still worse, or I should rather say, are still better ; for he cannot receive an appointment until he has undergone a new examination, and one in competition with other candidates, the inspector being one of the judges ; and if the verdict of the tribunal, upon the comparative trial, should appear to him to be erroneous, the inspector has the right to appeal to the minister. *Thirdly*, after the teacher has received his appointment, or has obtained leave to open a private school, he must appear before the inspector of the district to have his appointment or licence to teach confirmed ; so that to the very last, when all the stages of admission have been gone through, he is still in some degree dependent on the inspector. *Lastly*, the suspension or dismissal is pronounced by the legal authorities, whether municipal or provincial, upon the motion of the inspectors.

It is necessary now to show in what way the public functionaries, who are invested with such extensive power, are themselves appointed and paid. Were they appointed and paid by the parish or the department, they would by that alone be rendered powerless ; they would derive their authority from persons

ignorant of the duties the inspectors had to perform, from town councils, mayors, sub-prefects and prefects. They might be chosen and retained in their office, on account of other interests than those of the primary schools, and from other motives than their capacity for the situation. In Holland they are paid by the State, and appointed by the State. Their emoluments are not considerable, they are even low, and are in truth no more than an indemnity. A family man, without any other means, could not maintain himself respectably upon the salary; but persons having property of their own, or who from some other analogous employment, either connected with religion or with education, are possessed of a decent competence, and are favourably situated in other respects, find in that indemnity, and especially in the honour of holding a royal commission, so much increase of ease and of consideration, that they undertake the duties with satisfaction. Another circumstance yet remains to be noticed: the State appoints, it is true, the district inspector, but it is upon a recommendation; and that recommendation does not come from a quarter unconnected with the primary schools, but from the provincial board of inspectors, who are thoroughly acquainted with what is wanted in the primary schools of their province, and are the best judges of the particular qualifications required in the vacant situation.

But it would not be desirable that the government should be obliged to appoint the person whom the board chose to recommend ; for that would be vesting the appointment in the board : they must therefore send up two names. The recommendations are accompanied by remarks, and the board have a right to add one or more additional candidates ; the Minister selects, and the Grand Pensionary of the republic—now the King—appoints.

These are the fundamental enactments in the law of 1806, which I have rather commented upon than literally expounded, rather developed than abridged, in order that they might be better understood, and set in a clearer light ; for the whole law does not contain more than twenty-one sections. I know of no law relating to primary instruction so short or more effective. It provides nothing more than the governing powers for the primary schools ; every thing else is left to the general rules for their administration. The organization of the inspection is the entire law ; and even that is not completed by the law, for many parts of it are contained in the general regulations, the law itself containing nothing more than the essential fundamental principles. Instead of attempting that precision, at once so easy and so deceptive, which looks so well on paper, but which in practice is always embarrassing, and leaves nothing

for time and experience to do, the Dutch law is of a general nature, and leaves a degree of latitude which, in my eyes, is the great merit of our own admirable decree of 1808. That decree is also very general in its nature, and legislates less about things and more about men. It contains a sort of hierarchy of authorities, and organizes the system of public instruction in France only in so far as it organizes a government for it; it establishes the governing body of the university, and leaves the rest to them. The regulations as to details followed, of course, soon after. In Holland the regulations came out at the same time as the law, and were incorporated with it; and I shall now proceed to explain them.

The first, or Regulation A., is entitled "*Regulation for primary instruction, and for the establishments connected with it, throughout the Batavian Republic.*"

The title shews that this regulation refers to matters of detail rather than to the governing authorities of the primary schools, and this is true in a general sense, as we shall presently see; nevertheless the question of the governing bodies appeared so important, that this first regulation contains a considerable number of provisions calculated to strengthen and to develop those in the law itself which relate to the inspectors. For example, Articles 7 and 8 contain that great and useful provision, to which we have just

referred, by which the Minister has power to call an annual meeting at The Hague, of deputies from all the provincial boards, at which he himself, or some one delegated by him, presides; for the purpose of their deliberating in common upon any matter relating to the education of the people. By Article 10, power is given to the district inspectors to propose the establishment of local committees of superintendence, in all towns and places of any importance where there is a large number of public and private schools. These committees are meant to act in aid of the inspector, and in no degree to counteract him; and as the inspector has great influence in the nomination of the members of the committee, a good understanding subsists between them, and both work together harmoniously. Article 21 lays down a certain general rule for the internal management of all primary schools, but at the same time it gives to each committee of superintendence the power to apply that general rule to the schools under their care, by a special regulation founded upon the general regulation, but modified according to the wants and circumstances of each. These special regulations are proposed, it is true, by the local committees of superintendence, of which the district inspectors are members, but they are laid before the provincial board, who examine them, and transmit them

with their opinion thereon, to the Minister. By Article 24, the government has the exclusive right of determining what books shall be used in the public schools; and in this respect the Batavian republic and the French empire took the same course. The government must have the direction of the public schools, and these would slip out of their hands if they did not possess the exclusive right of determining what books shall be used in the schools; nor is it less evident that in a matter of so much delicacy and importance such a right cannot be delegated to others; for in the exercise of it, a degree of prudence and firmness are required that can only be looked for from the government. That Article is precisely similar to Article 80 in our fundamental decree of 1808. The general list of books authorized by the government being drawn up, a selection is to be made, so as to have a special list for each province. The power of making the selection is a very important one, for all the public schools of the province are limited exclusively to the special list made out for that province. The choice is not left to the committees of superintendence, although under control of the district inspectors; it is confined to the provincial board. The list is always considerable and each public teacher is at liberty to choose such books as he most approves of. In this way all rights are preserved, all

interests and all proper feelings are consulted. The State, having settled its exclusive general list, has a security that in no public school will books be introduced that are either dangerous to society, or of a lower level in point of knowledge than is wished to be maintained. On the other hand, the particular interests of the provinces, each of which has its peculiar manners and customs, are guaranteed by the right which the provincial board possesses, of selecting from that general list those books which are best adapted for the province. Lastly, every teacher having the power to select from the provincial list, has his individual taste and fancy gratified; and thus he acquires a livelier interest in his task. All this is not a mere manœuvre; it confers a real power, for the exercise of which particular rules are prescribed, with a certain degree of latitude in the observance of them. This judicious freedom of action produces emulation, and leads to constant improvements in the methods of teaching. But the influence of the inspectors in this essential point is completely secured, for it is they who draw out the provincial list, and who watch that it is strictly attended to. Private teachers may use what books they please, under the sole condition that they give notice to the inspector of the district, who reports them to the provincial board, and his report,

according to circumstances, is transmitted to the higher ministerial authority.

Besides the provisions respecting inspectors, Regulation A contains other articles of the greatest importance: as for example, the Articles 22 and 23, which give primary instruction in Holland quite a distinctive character. The regulation now under consideration, like the Prussian law, lays it down as a principle that moral and religious education is the end of all primary instruction. In this respect the two laws entirely agree, and the agreement does honour to both: for if the schools for the working classes did no more than develop their minds, if they did not at the same time develop those sentiments of morality and of piety, that are necessary to keep them right in their conduct, such schools would perhaps do more harm than good, and serve no better purpose than to create a barbarism of a new description, in which a knowledge of the material world would be accompanied with profound ignorance of the good and the beautiful, and of the true destiny of human nature. The Batavian republic did not hesitate to proclaim this principle,—that the end of all primary instruction is, as the words of the 22d Article expressly declare,—“*the exercise of all the social and Christian virtues.*” But although the Dutch law and the Prussian law profess the same

object, they differ remarkably in the choice of the means for attaining it. In Germany, in the Protestant as well as in the Catholic parts of it, there is an intimate alliance between the church and the school. In order that the school may have a Christian character, the teacher is required to give instruction in the Christian faith; and that not generally, derived from moral considerations only, but both moral and doctrinal; Protestant or Catholic, according to the communion to which the children belong. If the school contains children of two different communions, the religious instruction is given by the ordinary master, according to the communion of the majority of the pupils, and that to which he himself belongs; and the special or doctrinal religious instruction of the rest is given by a minister of their own persuasion, at certain hours, but always in school, who attends for that purpose. Such a system appears to me excellent in principle. I approve of that alliance between the church and the school: without it, I should fear that the harmony which ought to subsist between the mental and the moral and religious culture would be broken or imperfectly sustained, and that the school-master, from not having to give any direct moral and religious instruction, would be apt to lose sight of it; and thus, in spite of the principle laid down in

the 22d Article, religion being wholly unrecognized in the school, the education of the mind of the child, which, to be genuine and impressive, must be single in purpose, might suffer considerably by subtle distinctions. Most assuredly, besides the moral and religious instruction in school, there ought to be the instruction which belongs to, and is given in, the church itself, accompanied by the usual exercises of religion, and imparted under the exclusive authority of its ministers. But there ought to be a preparation for that instruction by moral and religious tuition in school, less special, but still Christian, and consequently embracing, within proper limits, the essential parts of Christianity; namely, the most general and the most indispensable duties of religion; above all, moral obligations, and the foundations upon which these rest; that is to say, the truths upon which Christianity itself is founded. These are the principles of the Prussian law; and in practice they have been attended with the best results. In Holland, the legislator thought differently; and whether it was that in that country there is a greater number of different religious sects than in Germany, and that, in consequence, direct religious instruction seemed more difficult; or, that at the time when the law was passed, the spirit of the age, even in Holland, tended more towards the

morality than the dogmas of Christianity; or, finally, that in Holland, where every thing has a practical tendency, moral training appeared the essential object, the result was, that the legislature of 1806 decided that no doctrinal religious instruction should be given in the school; but it was provided that arrangements should be made whereby the children should be instructed, out of school, in the dogmas of the particular faith to which they belong. I must not omit to add that such arrangements were really made. I have before me a circular letter, addressed by the government^a to the different ecclesiastical authorities, together with their answers, by which it will be seen that all willingly assented to the separation. The rule is observed every where: the master gives in the school the education common to all; and out of school, the ministers of the different persuasions take charge of the religious instruction. In what then does that instruction in school consist which, according to the 22d Article, is to prepare the child for the exercise of the social and the Christian virtues? Is it an abstract and philosophical instruction in Christian morality? That could only be very superficial and very vague. But we must test the soundness of the principles by the results: if these are good, the Dutch system is good, at least in Holland; for we may

^a Appendix B.

arrive at the same point by different ways. The fact undoubtedly is, that I have a firm persuasion from all I saw, and from all I heard, that those who have been reared under the system contained in the law of 1806 are an honest and a pious people. Christianity is rooted in the manners and in the creed of the people; and yet, in the schools of a nation so religious, the instruction prescribed by the 22d Article does not go beyond the history of the Bible, accompanied by such reflections as that history suggests^a.

There is still another very important point in which the Dutch law differs from that of Prussia, I mean the obligation imposed by law on parents to send their children to school, when they cannot shew that they are educated at home. I have elsewhere observed how great a partisan I am of that legal obligation (*Schulpflichtigkeit*^b). To call for an efficient national system, and yet not dare to insist that families who cannot educate their children themselves shall send them to public schools, appears to me to be a lamentable contradiction. Every country, whether monarchical or republican, which like Prussia and France is accustomed to a powerful system of centralization, is fitted for and ought to

^a See p. 81.

^b Report to the Chamber of Peers on primary instruction, p. 164.

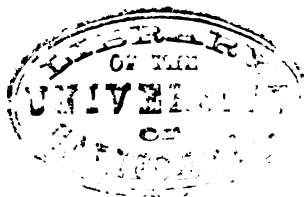
have such a law. But in Holland, where the government of the Grand Pensionary was feeble, where both municipal and parental authority have immense power, and where there is a very influential association, the Society for the Public Good, which has been long at work, and continues actively to promote and to encourage the education of the people throughout the country, the obligation imposed by the Prussian law could not be imposed, nor was it indispensably necessary. The Dutch law is therefore silent upon this head, and the Regulation A. contains only, in Art. 30, a recommendation to the provincial and parochial authorities to take such measures, that attendance at the schools, and the keeping these open throughout the year, be strictly observed. These measures could not be directly coercive, but several effective expedients have been resorted to. The inspectors have every where stimulated the zeal of the local authorities to found schools, either entirely gratuitous, or at so cheap a rate as to tempt poor families to avail themselves of them. The clergy of the different denominations have impressed upon those families, as a matter of conscience, that they should send their children to school. The administrators of the funds for the poor have made it a condition of obtaining relief; so that there is now scarcely a child in the rural dis-

tricts that does not go to school ; and in the towns, the number of those who receive no education is extremely small. The official returns which I have obtained show, that if Holland is still considerably behind Prussia in that respect, it is nevertheless in a very satisfactory state.

They have arrived at that state by degrees, and what has chiefly contributed to it has been, the excellence of the schools, and the talent of the masters ; and more especially the consideration in which the office of schoolmaster is held ; thanks to their own zeal, and thanks also to the respectable stations which the incomes they derive from their schools enable them to hold. Yet neither the law itself nor any of the regulations have fixed their remuneration upon any permanent or general basis, as is done by the French law, which obliges each *commune* to guarantee to the teacher a fixed salary, the minimum amount of which is fixed at 200 francs for the whole of France, (about £8,) together with a suitable dwelling. The Prussian law wisely abstains from fixing a minimum salary for the whole kingdom, but confers on the provincial consistories the right of fixing the minimum in each province. With regard to the fees paid by the pupils, by a provision in the Prussian code which has happily been imitated in the French law, it is not left to the teacher to collect them,

but to the parochial tax collector. In Holland, neither the law nor the general regulations lay down any similar rules; all that is said on the subject is in Art. 30 of Regulation A., where the provincial and parochial authorities are enjoined to take care that the emoluments of the master shall be such that his functions, when discharged in a creditable manner, shall yield him a sufficient maintenance, and that he shall be as little dependent as possible on the bounty of the parents of the children who frequent his school. Following that rule, the provincial regulations have settled all that was necessary, and the situation of the schoolmaster is quite as good in Holland as it is in Prussia. I found them every where, in the villages as well as in the towns, quite contented; and the best proof of their being well off is, that the situation of a schoolmaster is sought after.

By the 31st Article of Regulation A., all measures for improving and giving security to the condition of the schoolmaster must originate with the government. One of these has been, that a grant of the public money is given in aid when the provinces and the parishes cannot make a suitable provision for them; and by the same article, the government considers itself justified in bestowing sometimes extraordinary rewards upon those masters who may more particularly distinguish themselves by their zeal and



success. The same article further provides that the government shall take measures for training fit and proper persons to teach in primary schools. That precious germ remained for a long time in the law without due development. For a considerable period the only method followed in Holland for training schoolmasters was that which Cuvier found in practice: there were certain classes, called normal classes, in all the well organized schools, and particularly in the schools for the poor, in which those children who shewed a particular turn for the calling of a schoolmaster remained, and were employed first as assistants, and afterwards as ushers. The schoolmasters were trained in that very simple and cheap way up to the year 1816, and as I have already said ^a, it greatly excited Cuvier's admiration. I learned with infinite satisfaction, both from Mr. Falck and from Mr. Van den Ende, that it was not choice, the result of mature consideration, but the force of circumstances which made them adopt that method; that Mr. Van der Palm had very early proposed the establishment of normal schools for training masters; that such had always been the opinion of Mr. Van den Ende, and that if there was no normal school in Holland prior to 1816, the reason is to be found in the unhappy

^a See p. 25.

state of the times, the instability of the government, and the want of sufficient funds. Mr. Falck is an avowed partisan of normal schools; he told me that it was Mr. Van den Ende who in 1816, in his capacity of Inspector-general of primary instruction, proposed the establishment of two normal schools at the expense of the state, one for Belgium and another for Holland. The Society for Public Good had already founded one at their own expense at Groningen; the government assisted it by grants, and it was thus kept up, and has been extremely useful; but that at Haarlem may truly be considered as the normal school of Holland *par excellence*. I must refer to the description I have already given of it^a, and proceed to the analysis of the next general regulation.

The Regulation B. relates solely to the *examinations to be undergone by those who desire to become teachers in the primary schools of the Batavian Republic*.

It must in the first place be remembered that, according to the law of 1806, two things are necessary for every schoolmaster, whether public or private: *First*, a certificate of general competency, the general admission, which is in all respects the same for the public and the private teacher. *Secondly*, a

^a See p. 38.

special appointment, after a comparative trial or competition for a public teacher, or a special license for him who wishes to set up a private school. Besides the certificate of general competency, a special license for private schoolmasters is considered in Holland to be indispensable. The government of 1806, although republican, or perhaps because it was republican, never dreamt of relinquishing the right of a State to control, either directly or by subordinate officers, every establishment of education, whether it might be called private or public; for although it may be called private, it is still one resorted to by the public. The only distinction known in Holland between a public and private school is one merely of finance, and they do not consider that a distinction of that sort ought to interfere at all with the right of the State, not only to superintend, but to interpose its authority in all that concerns the public weal, in a matter of so much importance as the education of children.

A candidate for a situation in a public school, after he has obtained a certificate of competency, cannot be appointed without first going through a comparative trial, in competition with all the other candidates whose names are entered on the general admission list. This expected competition keeps all aspirants in constant activity, and prevents them

from relaxing in their studies, after they have got their certificate of competency. This excellent part of the system is wanting in the French law, and every effort should be made to remedy the defect, by encouraging the *Arrondissement* Committees to re-examine and subject to a comparative trial all the candidates recommended to them by the municipal councils; several of them have already, of their own accord, adopted this plan; and so far from their being justly blamed for doing so, they cannot be too much commended for their zeal.

But the great point of all is the examination for the general admission. This is the sifting scrutiny; and if it be either badly conducted or be too easy, there will be a crowd of incompetent candidates, who will gradually succeed in getting situations, and thus irreparable injury will be done to the primary schools; for in matters of primary instruction especially, we must not reckon upon being able to exclude incompetent persons, but must rely upon a power of preventing them from becoming candidates; and the check employed in Holland is the examination for the general admission, than which nothing can be better organized*.

In obtaining the certificate of competency, there

* See Appendix A.

are four degrees of honour with which it may be taken ; and this gradation of ranks establishes a moral hierarchy among the candidates ; and creates a rivalry that is not only useful, but attended with positive advantages to themselves. In the towns, they will not appoint any teacher, whether public or private, who has not been a first or a second class man. No one can be in the first class previously to his having completed his twenty-fifth year ; a most severe examination is enjoined for it, and the subject matter of the examination goes far beyond the corresponding examination in France ; that which takes place for the *brevet superieur*. Besides the different subjects gone into, some of which are difficult, the candidate must satisfy his examiners that he has a generally well cultivated mind. Those who do not obtain a superior rank than the third class, cannot stand candidates for any situation higher than a village school ; and those who do not get above the fourth class, can only be assistants or ushers in a town school ; or, at the most, masters in village schools with very small emoluments.

In the examination for these four classes, but particularly for the first three, the talent for teaching is quite as much dwelt upon as the particular knowledge of the candidates. The first thing the examiners do is to have a conversation with the candidate, in order

that they may be satisfied, independently of the certificate of good character that must be produced as a preliminary step, both as to his moral and religious principles, and as to his opinions in general. Next comes the examination properly so called, and in the following order: 1st, as to the acquirements of the candidate; 2dly, as to his method of teaching; and 3dly, as to his skill in matters of discipline and in the intellectual and moral government of a school. At the conclusion of the examination, he receives a certificate of competency, in which are inserted, 1st, the class in which he has been placed; and 2dly, the functions he has a right to aspire to, in consequence of the rank he has obtained. The examiners further endeavour to characterize the peculiar capacity and the kind of talent which the candidate has manifested, besides the general testimony which the number of the class gives. At the close of every session of the board of examiners, the names of those who have obtained a general admission, together with the ranks they have severally taken, are published in the official journal of primary instruction.

But however efficient and well contrived such examinations may be, every thing depends on the persons to whom they are confided: in such a task as this, there must be no mere *ex officio* members of the board. In France, I rejoice to say the members are nominated

by the minister ; but it is even better in Holland, for the board is wholly composed of inspectors. The examination for the fourth class, that which qualifies for situations of assistants and ushers, takes place before the inspector of the district alone ; but for the other three classes, before the provincial board, which consists of all the district inspectors. Before a person can be admitted for examination in the lowest class, he must have resided an entire year in the district of the inspector who examines him ; for the others, in the particular province to which the board belongs ; and his certificate of residence is the best test of character he can produce ; the candidates are thus well known to those who examine them, and every thing is conducted with a full knowledge of the circumstances to be taken into account. By this method of examining for a general admission, those who are not likely to succeed as teachers are stopped early in their career, and in the final examination of candidates for particular situations, those only of proved capacity can come forward. The exclusive employment of inspectors in the preliminary examination, and their effective interference in the final trial, are the main spring of the whole system.

The third general Regulation (C.) relates to the inspectors themselves. The powers of those functionaries have been already described, and I shall now

shew what their duties are, and the task that is imposed upon them. There is so little besides special enactments in this regulation that it is difficult to abridge it.

Every district inspector must hold meetings at certain fixed periods, either in his own house or in such other part of his district as shall appear to him most convenient, of all the teachers who are under his inspection, for the purpose of conversing with them upon the important duties confided to them, and upon the best way of carrying them into execution.

He is bound to visit every school in his district twice a year.

All the district inspectors of the province must meet at the chief town of the province three times a year, at Easter, in July, and October.

Besides these ordinary statutory meetings, extraordinary meetings may be called either by the Minister or by the provincial authorities, or when the inspectors themselves consider it necessary; but in this last case they must defray their own expenses.

At the ordinary meetings, each member of the board must give in a written report, 1st, of the schools he has visited since the last meeting; 2dly, of the meetings of the teachers which he has held;

3dly, of the examinations of candidates for the fourth class which have taken place before him; and 4thly, upon the different events connected with the schools in his district which may have occurred in the interval.

From these different reports, each inspector must draw up a general annual report upon the state of the schools and of primary instruction in his district.

Lastly, the provincial board must draw up a summary of the reports of the different members, containing a general account of the state of the schools and of primary instruction throughout the province.

At the conclusion of the meeting of the provincial board, an extract of the minutes of the proceedings must be sent to the Minister of the Interior within a fortnight, together with the original reports of the different members, and a list of the candidates examined, stating the rank they have severally obtained.

After the Easter meeting, there must be sent to the Minister the annual general report of the board of primary instruction for the province; the annual general reports of each of the members upon their respective districts; the annual general reports of the different local committees of superintendence; and

lastly, a list of the different propositions which each board is desirous of bringing under the consideration of the next general meeting at The Hague.

It will be seen that the office of inspector is no sinecure. Men devoted to the cause can alone discharge the duties properly; and the inspectors themselves are the best judges of the various qualifications which ought to be found in the person to whom such a trust can safely be confided. It is therefore provided by Art. 17 of Regulation C, that the recommendation of a fit person to fill up a vacancy in the office of local inspector must come from the provincial board; that recommendation is sent to the provincial authorities, and they transmit it, with their opinion thereon, to the Minister.

Nothing more remained to be done except to provide for the internal arrangement of each school, and accordingly a special regulation for the order to be observed in the schools of the Batavian republic, was issued on the 29d of May, 1806, by virtue of the 21st Article in the General Regulation B. The following are the principal provisions contained in that fourth regulation:—

When the number of pupils in any one school exceeds seventy, an under master must be appointed.

Every school must be divided into three classes,

each of which must have its distinct place, and be taught separately.

Giving instruction to the pupils singly is prohibited, and simultaneous teaching is prescribed every where, and in every case.

Long before there was any question as to the system of mutual instruction, every thing that is really good in that method was set forth in the 10th Article of the Regulation we are now considering. "When the master shall think it advisable, he shall reward the most advanced and most orderly pupils, by appointing them to teach certain things to the least advanced among the other scholars." Such a practice is really good; on the one hand it is no disadvantage to those who are taught, because the instruction is confined to the most easy things, such as must be quite familiar to the more advanced pupils in a school; and on the other hand, it is very useful to the teachers themselves; for in order to instruct another, we must know the thing well ourselves, and thus the little schoolmaster teaches himself very profitably; his faculties are developed, and he thus sometimes discovers a talent for teaching, which induces him to continue some time longer at school, and finally to devote himself to the profession. The head master and the under-master are in this way a little relieved, and can apply themselves with more care

to their different employments. Mutual instruction, within certain limits, is sound in principle, it is only the extravagant length to which it is carried which renders it vicious and irrational. Because the more advanced pupils in a school are capable of giving some lessons to the least advanced, it does not follow that they are fitted to take upon themselves the whole instruction, still less the government of the school ; it is evident that, if it be exclusively adopted, such a system can, at the best, be little more than mechanical teaching and external show. The mental and moral life of a school can be given by the master only ; it is he alone who can inspire it, because it exists only in him. It is absurd, therefore, to supersede him habitually and constantly by children ; but the master does right who by way of distinction employs the most intelligent and the most orderly among his pupils, to teach some things to the least advanced children ; and the regulation allows this, and even recommends it to be done.

As might be expected in Holland, the regulations do not fail to enjoin great cleanliness both as to the school and the scholars.

There is an annual examination of each school, when the pupils are permitted to pass from a lower to a higher class, according to their proficiency, and upon this occasion, rewards are given to those who

have the most distinguished themselves by diligence and good conduct; and a pupil who has been conspicuous for the progress he has made, when he finally leaves the school, receives a certificate, in which honourable mention is made of his attainments and conduct.

A special code of regulations for the internal management of each school, founded upon the above general regulation, printed or written, must be hung up in the school; and it must be read over from time to time by the master, to the assistant teachers and the pupils.

But it is time to bring this long analysis to a conclusion; although, notwithstanding its length, I may have omitted to mention many useful things. I do not think that I have passed over any essential point, and I trust that the faithful summary I have given will convey a sufficiently clear idea of the system of primary instruction in Holland. That system, and the analogous one laid down in the Prussian law of 1819, are admirably conceived in themselves, and have produced the best results. I have on more occasions than one drawn a comparison between the Dutch and the Prussian systems, and I shall complete that comparison by a recapitulation of those points in which I conceive there are grounds of preference in both.

✓ I greatly prefer the Prussian law to that of Hol-

land for normal schools, and the higher class of primary schools.

In Holland, normal schools are not provided for by law ; and in fact there are but two, one of which only is maintained at the expense of the State. It is no doubt a great improvement upon the old method of training masters, but they must not stop there. In Prussia, with a population of less than thirteen millions, there are more than thirty normal schools completely organized. In Holland, where the population amounts to two millions and a half, there ought, according to the same proportion, to be five ; there should, I think, be at least three, one at Groningen for the provinces of Groningen, Friesland, Drenthe and Overijssel ; and certainly one normal school for these four departments, having a population of 700,000 souls, and containing such towns as Groningen, Leeuwarden, Zwolle, Deventer, Campen, Assen, and several besides, would not be more than sufficient. The normal school of Haarlem would serve for the three provinces of North Holland, South Holland, and Zeeland, containing nearly a million of inhabitants, and the three principal towns in the kingdom, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and The Hague. There is not, at present, a single normal school for that vast territory which includes the provinces of Utrecht, Gelderland, North Brabant, and

Limbourg, with such towns as Utrecht, Amersfort, Nimeguen, Arnheim, Bois le Duc, Breda and Maestricht. That part of the kingdom requires at least one normal school similar to that at Groningen; and it would be still better if there were two; one at Utrecht, and the other at Bois le Duc or Maestricht. It would be a deed worthy of the Society for the Public Good, to which the country is already indebted for that at Groningen, to set about so useful an undertaking as that which I now venture to recommend. I earnestly call upon the Dutch government to consider, that there is not a single province in Prussia which has not at least one normal school, and some of the provinces have several. In France, by the law of 1833, there must be a normal school in every department; leaving however a power for several departments to unite in the establishment of one such school in common. I recommend these facts, and the important considerations connected with them, to the attention of the Dutch government: if they were to give each of the small normal schools, which I am proposing that they should establish, 12 or 15,000 francs yearly, (£480 to £600,) it would be no great sum, and would be far from being unproductive; they would, in the first place, speedily improve the state of primary instruction in those provinces, some of which are said to be somewhat behind in this re-

spect; and the establishment of these schools would, moreover, be attended with some *political* results, which it would be worth while making some sacrifices to obtain. Gelderland, North Brabant and Limbourg, are the frontiers of the kingdom on the side of Germany and Belgium, and it is of great consequence that an attachment to their native country of Holland, and to their king, should be firmly rooted among the people of these provinces: in which point of view the establishment of two normal schools there, is not a matter of light importance. The pupils educated in these schools, and brought up in the principles of the government, when afterwards dispersed through the towns and country, would instil those principles in the education of the children, and thus gradually into the whole population.

The second point in which the Prussian system appears to me to be superior to the Dutch is, in the classification of the schools. The four distinct classes of which I have spoken are, in truth, no more than a kind of moral hierarchy among the teachers, and are not really four classes of schools; the law itself does not establish any distinct classification. The lower schools (*laagere scholen*) are the same as the elementary primary schools of Prussia; they are to be found both in the towns and in the villages, and there are both public and private schools of this description. In

the towns, the public schools of this kind are the schools for the poor, (*armen-scholen*,) the *armen-schulen* of Germany, the same as the schools in France that are entirely *gratis*. Next to these are the intermediate schools, (*tusschen-scholen*,) where the fee is very small, but still something is paid: these exist only in the towns; many of them are public, but a large number are private. Then come the French schools, so called because French is taught in them, a proof that they give a higher style of education. These last constitute the higher primary schools of Holland; the fees are high, and almost all, if not all, are private establishments. There are thus apparently schools of three different grades; but in reality there are not three, for the *tusschen-school* is no more than an elementary primary school, and is even the same as the school for the poor (*armen-school*) except in a financial point of view. The pupils pay something, and that is the whole difference; there is a little more attention to externals, but the teaching is the same; and no higher qualification is required for the master of the *tusschen-school*, than for the master of the *armen-school*. The real distinction then between the schools is reduced to that between the *laagere school* (which includes both the *tusschen-school* and the *armen-school*) and the French school, where the instruction is really more extended and less elementary. The law does not

require the masters of the French schools to have a special certificate, it does no more than enact that those only of the first and second class shall be school-masters in the towns, making no mention of particular schools; nor does it say under what conditions it shall be obligatory to have a higher primary school, a French school, in a town. The French law, imitating the German law in this respect, requires that each chief town in the department, and every other town containing more than 6000 souls, shall have a higher primary school. By the Prussian law, every town of fifteen hundred inhabitants must have such a school; and, in that country, the course of instruction in the higher primary schools is more extended than in the French schools of Holland; a special qualification is necessary for the masters of such schools; which are constituted into a particular class of public establishments for education, under the popular name of *bürger-schulen*, citizen schools, and sometimes the very expressive name of middle or intermediate schools. From the want of a legal foundation of a similar nature, the higher primary schools in Holland are almost every where private speculations, which are encouraged by the towns, but are not maintained by them. There is consequently a considerable part of the population for whose education no legal

provision is made; but I shall not go into that subject here, having dwelt upon it elsewhere with great earnestness^a. It may be laid down as a general principle, that as a public elementary school is indispensable in every parish, no town of any importance ought to be without a public school of a higher description. The French schools in Holland are in general pretty good, but they might be improved. It is much to be desired that the government should turn its attention more to the subject, and interfere in two ways; *first* by giving pecuniary aid, and *secondly* by requiring that the head masters of those schools should be first class men. I recommend to the government to communicate with the general meeting of the deputies from the provincial boards on this subject; and to direct them to turn their thoughts to the organization of *bürger schulen*, like those of Prussia.

✓ But the Dutch law has greatly the advantage over the Prussian in the system of inspection for the primary schools. I approve undoubtedly of gratuitous committees of superintendence, such as exist under the Prussian law, and in the French law, which was borrowed from it: nothing is more important than to unite the efforts of the higher classes with those of the government in the education of the people, and

^a Report, p. 247, and Report to the Chamber of Peers.

in that way to interest the whole country in so sacred a cause. The Dutch law has in like manner established these committees ; but in such a way that they are always useful, and never do any harm. And why ?—because there are no *ex-officio* members ; the members are selected by the constituted authorities wherever they please ; and not only are *ex-officio* members excluded by law, but the authorities, in appointing the committees, are bound to consult the inspector ; the consequence of which is, that not only a proper constitution of these committees is secured, but also harmony between the committee and the inspector, without which it is impossible to effect any good.

But the provincial boards of primary instruction, ✓ with their great and various powers, constitute, in my mind, the chief superiority of the Dutch over the Prussian law. They resemble the *Schul-collegium* which forms a part of every provincial consistory in Prussia, but they are far better, for the *Schul-collegium* is not composed of inspectors. It sends out some of its members to inspect, as occasion requires, but inspection is not its function : it judges from written documents and not from ocular proof, and is generally obliged to rely upon the sole testimony of the member sent to inspect ; whereas in Holland, the board itself being both inspectors and judges of inspections, are on the one hand better judges, in

consequence of the experience they have acquired in a constant routine of inspection; and on the other hand, they are better inspectors, by what they learn at the board, when acting as judges and governors, a combination eminently practical, and uniting what is almost every where else separated. The provincial consistories of Prussia with their school-colleges, are similar to the academical councils of France; and secondary education is, and ought to be, their object. There is only one for each province, which is enough for the secondary instruction, but altogether insufficient for the primary schools, which require the authorities over them to be nearer at hand. I should therefore wish to see in Prussia, and in France, in the chief town of the department, a power above the *arrondissement* committees established by law, a board for each department, consisting of the different *arrondissement* inspectors, when we get them; and until that is the case, such members of committees in the *arrondissement* as have been recommended by the inspector, and are nominated by the minister, after consultation with the prefect; and I would have that board meet once or twice a year in the principal town of the department. It might be renewed or modified every year; might receive the annual report of the inspector of the department, might be presided over by the prefect, and

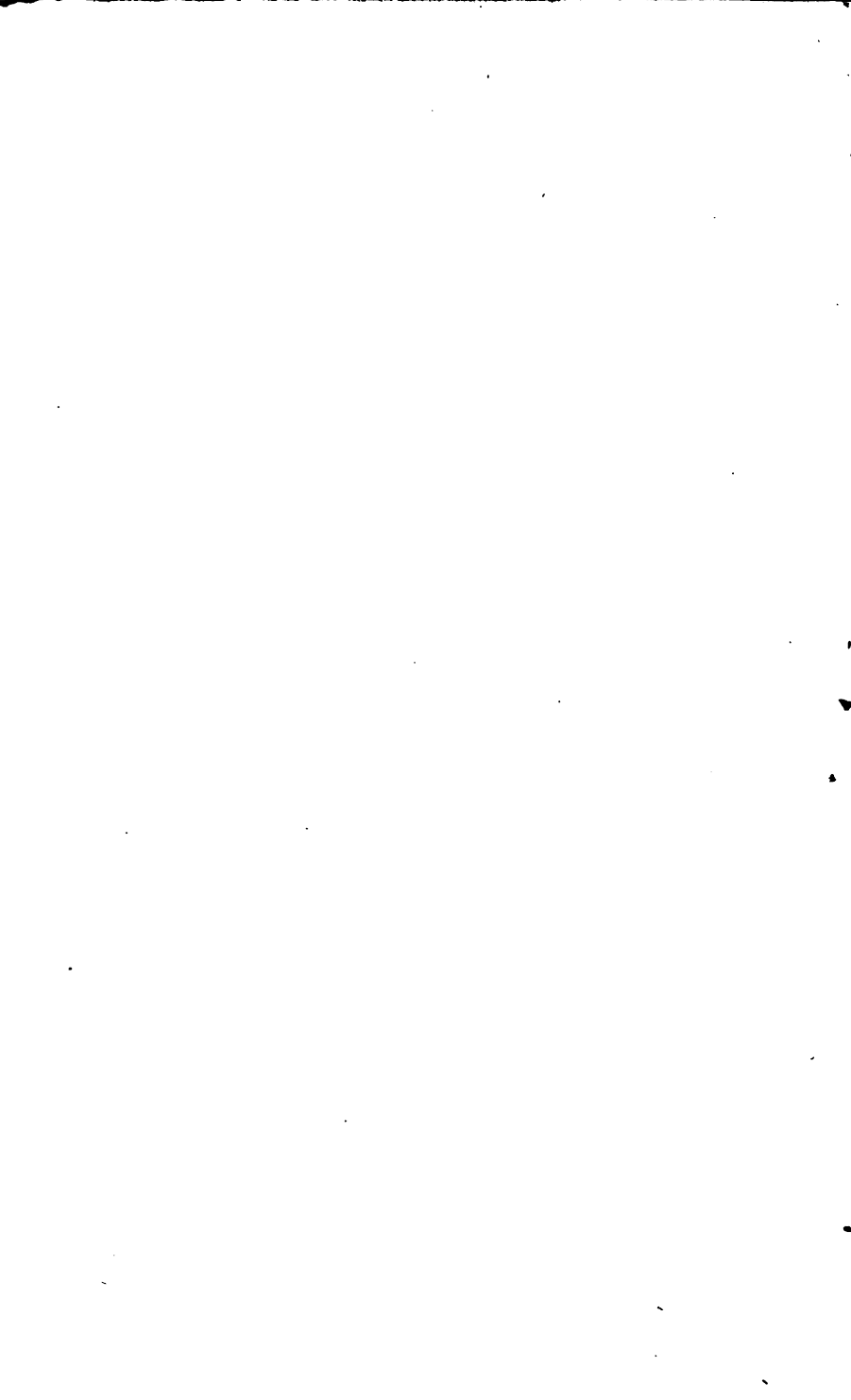
might form his council in all matters connected with primary instruction. Its chief object would be to introduce somewhat of uniformity in the primary schools of the department; whereas, at present, there is a constant disposition on the part of the *arrondissement* committees, and especially of the town councils, to introduce the schemes of individual members, which are often quite at variance with the law, and with the views of the central authority. It is necessary to have some intermediate power between the central body and the local authority of the *arrondissement* committees; and that intermediate power must not be a mere part of an academical council, but a regular departemental body, constituted, as I have suggested, after the model of the provincial boards in Holland.

I have thus described the system of primary instruction in Holland; and I have done it at some length, from the official documents, because the great results which it has produced have so much contributed to the high estimation in which Holland is held by the rest of Europe. I had still another motive. Primary instruction, with us, is yet in its infancy; and the growing system is capable of receiving many modifications, and of being greatly developed by legislative interference. Every one knows how much our law of 1833 is indebted to the exam-

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ple of Germany ; and I thought that the experience of Holland, which Cuvier, on a former occasion, had endeavoured to profit by, when he drew up the ordinance of 1816, would not be appealed to in vain, at a time when the education of the people is so much an object of attention to the government and to all enlightened men. These are not vain theoretical speculations, but principles sanctioned by a brilliant success of thirty years ; and on that ground also I felt that I owed it both to Holland and to France, to give this detailed description of the Dutch systems of education.

APPENDIX.



APPENDIX A.

THE LAW

AND

GENERAL REGULATIONS OF 1806^a.

I. THE LAW.

THEIR High Mightinesses, representatives of the Batavian Republic, to all to whom these presents shall come, greeting, &c.

Having received and approved of the proposal made by the Grand Pensionary, it has been resolved to decree, as by these presents we do decree as follows :

Law upon primary instruction in the Batavian Republic.

ART. 1. The special inspection of primary instruction

^a The copy here given of this valuable document, which had never been seen out of Holland, has been drawn up from two translations communicated to me, the one by Mr. Van den Ende, the other by the Dutch Government.—AUTHOR.

This English edition has been carefully compared with a copy of the Dutch original. *Publicatie van Hun Hoog Mogende, vertegenwoordigende het Bataafsch Gemeenebest, aangaande het Lager School-wesen en Onderwijs in de Bataafsche Republiek ; gearresteerd den 3 April 1806. Haag, 1806.*—TR.

shall be confided, throughout the whole extent of the Batavian Republic, to functionaries who shall be called school inspectors, and who shall carry that inspection into effect, either concurrently or conjointly, according as the situation shall require, with other persons or commissions, according to the nature of the schools; the whole nevertheless under the chief superintendence of the Grand Pensionary, or, in his name, of the Secretary of State for the Home Department, and under the superintendence of the provincial authorities.

ART. 2. The provincial authorities shall take care that, throughout the whole extent of their province, young persons shall have every means of receiving a suitable education; without however, by an unlimited permission, allowing the number of teachers and of schools to be too great, especially in the rural districts.

ART. 3. They, as well as the parochial^a authorities, shall endeavour to ameliorate, and give security to, the condition of the teachers; according to such means as are at their disposal, or according to such as shall be supplied by the government, in case of need. They shall further take pains to encourage the adoption of the best system of education in the primary schools, to establish schools of industry in connection with the public schools, and maintain such as are already in existence in workhouses.

ART. 4. The school inspectors living in the same province, shall constitute the Board of Primary Instruction for that province.

ART. 5. Besides the power vested in the provincial

^a I have translated *commune* by the word parish, as descriptive of the territorial division most nearly corresponding to a *commune*.—Tr.

authorities to appoint out of their own body a committee to watch over the primary schools, they may appoint from among themselves a member, who shall have particular powers to that effect, who shall stand in a neutral capacity between the committee of education and the school inspector, and to whom the latter must in the first instance apply in all matters relating to the school. In the department of Holland there shall be two or three named, viz., one for each committee therein appointed.

ART. 6. The Grand Pensionary shall fix the sum total to be granted to each board. There shall be a provision in the budget for that special purpose, and it shall cover all the expenses and disbursements by the school inspectors, when allowed by the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

ART. 7. The number of members of which each board shall consist, the boundaries of the districts, and the sum which shall be allotted to each, out of the general fund, shall be regulated by the Grand Pensionary, and may be revised and modified according to circumstances.

ART. 8. The first named members of each board, and the members who may eventually be added to it, shall be nominated by the Grand Pensionary.

ART. 9. The Secretary of State for the Home Department shall submit to the Grand Pensionary all the necessary propositions concerning the different objects mentioned in the three preceding articles.

ART. 10. When a vacancy in the situation of a school inspector is to be filled up, the respective boards shall deliver to the provincial authorities a list, containing the names of two persons, who shall transmit the same to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, adding thereto such observations as may appear to them ad-

visible; and, if they shall see fit, increasing the number of candidates by one or two persons. The Secretary of State shall submit that list to the Grand Pensionary, who shall appoint the school inspector.

ART. 11. The boards of primary instruction, the school inspectors, and all other local boards for schools which may be instituted in conformity with ulterior measures, shall take care that the law and regulations relative to primary instruction, both general and special, be executed, and be not evaded, nor rendered inoperative, under any pretext whatsoever, in the provinces, districts, towns, or parishes which form part of their jurisdiction. If such a case should arise, a complaint must be laid before the parochial, provincial, or national authorities, according to the exigency of the case.

ART. 12. No primary school shall be established, or shall exist, under whatsoever denomination, without express leave of the respective provincial or parochial authorities; who shall previously take the opinion and advice of the school inspector of the district, or of the local school board.

ART. 13. No one shall be allowed to teach in a primary school in the Batavian Republic, without complying with the four following conditions:—

First. He must produce one or more satisfactory certificates of good character, both as to his morals and his conduct as a citizen.

Secondly. He must have a certificate of general admission to exercise the calling of a teacher.

Thirdly. Besides such certificate of general admission, he must produce a *call*, *nomination*, or *special appointment*, to some particular school, legally obtained.

Fourthly. After having obtained such call, nomination

or special appointment, he must appear, with such proofs as may be desired, (either individual witnesses, or written testimony,) before the school inspector of his district, and before the local school board.

Tutors living in the houses of private individuals, and exclusively engaged in the education of the children of the family, are exempted.

ART. 14. All those who, after the passing of the present law, shall open a primary school, or give primary instruction, under whatever denomination, or in whatever manner it may be, in contravention of the two preceding articles, shall, for the first offence, incur a penalty of fifty florins, and for a second offence, of a hundred florins; whereof one third shall be given to the public officer who brings the complaint, and the two remaining thirds shall be applied for the benefit of the respective local schools.

If the offenders shall be unable to pay the penalties, the judge shall have power to inflict such other punishment as he shall deem advisable, due regard being had to the persons and the circumstances of the parties: for a third offence they shall be banished from the parish for six consecutive years.

ART. 15. The stipulations contained in Article 13 shall not apply to existing teachers legally exercising their functions, so long as they do not change their school, or their domicile; with the reserve, nevertheless, of subjecting them to the said enactments, in cases of notorious bad conduct or extreme ignorance.

ART. 16. General admission, for any department of primary instruction, can only be obtained by a previous and suitable examination before the competent authorities.

ART. 17. The calls, nominations, and special appointments shall be given by such boards as shall be hereafter determined on by the local regulation mentioned in Article 20 ; and in such a manner, moreover, that no call, nomination, or appointment shall take place, unless the school inspector of the district, or the local school board be duly informed thereof, and unless the certificate of general admission shall have been previously laid before the inspector.

ART. 18. All those who, having obtained a certificate of general admission, shall be guilty of neglect in the discharge of their duties ; or of any infraction of, or resistance to, the law ; or of notorious bad conduct ; shall be punished, for the first offence, by the suspension for six weeks of the privileges of their certificate of general admission ; and in case of a repetition of the offence, by that certificate being rendered null and void ; and they shall be deprived of any right or advantage derivable from their call, nomination, or special appointment : and should they, notwithstanding, continue to teach, they shall be subjected to the punishments and penalties stated in Article 14.

ART. 19. The above mentioned temporary suspension or annulment of the privileges of the certificate, shall be ordered by the parochial, provincial, or national authorities competent to judge therein, upon a motion to that effect in the provincial board of education, or in the local school board ; who shall confer, if necessary, with such persons as may be in most direct communication with the teachers in question.

ART. 20. All further and particular conditions which shall be deemed necessary for the advantage of primary in-

struction in each province, shall be contained in a local code of regulations, which shall be drawn up by each provincial board, in conformity with Article 5, and shall be submitted to the provincial authorities ; who, after having obtained the sanction of the Secretary of State for the Home Department, shall give formal effect to it.

ART. 21. The Grand Pensionary shall decide upon such farther regulations or instructions as may be necessary for the uniform and effective introduction of this law, as well as all other regulations which shall have a tendency to make primary instruction in general more perfect.

All proclamations, statutes, ordinances, or regulations now in existence in this republic, on the subject of primary schools, under whatever denomination they may be, and especially the decree of the 29th July 1803, as well as all the regulations and ordinances for schools founded upon them, shall, without any exception, be rescinded and annulled, from the moment that the present law shall be declared to be in operation, by its being promulgated by the Grand Pensionary.

By virtue of Article 21 of the above law, the several regulations and instructions indicated below by the letters A. B. C. are now decreed in like manner as the present law is decreed.

REGULATION A. *Concerning primary instruction, and the establishments connected with it, in the Batavian Republic.*

ART. 1. By a primary school, is to be understood,

every establishment, of whatsoever denomination, whether schools, colleges, institutions or otherwise, in which the young of different ages and of both sexes shall be educated, whether collectively or separately, in the first principles of knowledge; such as reading, writing, arithmetic, and the Dutch language; or in more advanced branches of knowledge, such as the French and other modern languages; or the ancient tongues; geography, history, and other subjects of that description; finally, any establishment having for its object to prepare young persons for a higher education; the ordinary Latin schools and gymnasia excepted.

ART. 2. Primary schools are hereby divided into two classes: 1. Those which are directly supported, either wholly or in part, by an annual allowance from any particular fund, whether of the state, province, or parish; from ecclesiastical funds or those belonging to any foundation; or which, in any way, receive permanent assistance or support from any public fund. 2. Those receiving no assistance from any public fund, which are supported by private means or by donations. The first are to be deemed public schools, the second private schools; and the teachers are consequently to be classed as public teachers and private teachers.

ART. 3. The private schools mentioned in the preceding article are of two kinds: 1. Those which belong exclusively, either to a deaconry, to a hospital^a of any religious community, or to the society "FOR THE PUBLIC Good;" or to any foundation whatever, supported entirely at its own expense; or to such as are wholly main-

^a *Godshuis.*

tained at the expense and at the risk of one or of several individuals, who have formed an association for the entire and regular support of these schools: 2. Those which have no other income than what they derive from the fees of the pupils, receiving no permanent grant or annual allowance.

ART. 4. Primary instruction, in the Batavian Republic shall be given in the public and private schools mentioned in Articles 2 and 3 of the present regulations ;

In part, by teachers of both sexes, including such other individuals as may act as assistants to, or substitutes for the master or mistress, or who under the name of under master, or under mistress, or the like, are entrusted with some branch of tuition in these schools ;

In part, by such teachers of both sexes as under the title of teacher of languages, revisor, (*répétiteur*,) or any other, give lessons either in their own houses or abroad ; and who are engaged in teaching some separate branch in the lower departments of tuition, to one or more pupils, in conformity with Article 1 of this regulation.

All such individuals are comprehended in the general law, and shall be designated by the names schoolmaster, schoolmistress, and teacher of languages, the latter term applying to those who give instruction at private houses.

Governors or tutors, and governesses, are alone excepted.

ART. 5. Every school inspector shall have his own particular district, the inspection whereof shall be confided to him individually, and in which he must, if possible, reside. The particular functions of the inspectors are regulated by *special instructions* for the boards of education. (*Regulation C.*)

ART. 6. The boards of education shall be provided by the provincial authorities, with every thing necessary for holding their meetings, such as a suitable room, fire, light, paper, &c.

ART. 7. If the Secretary of State for the Home Department shall deem it necessary, he shall summon an annual general meeting of deputies from all the provincial boards, to be held at The Hague ; he shall preside at that meeting, and they shall deliberate upon the general interests of the primary schools.

ART. 8. Each provincial board shall send one of its members as a deputy to attend that meeting, and his expenses shall be defrayed according to a scale hereafter to be determined upon.

ART. 9. In small towns, villages, hamlets, or other places, where, in addition to a public school, there are not two or more private schools of the second class, exclusive of small schools kept by women, the school inspector of the district is authorized, in concert with the local authorities, to entrust one or more known and respectable persons with a local inspection, subordinate to his own, over the school or schools, and also over all the teachers of both sexes, in the place, whether village, hamlet, or otherwise, and for each separately.

ART. 10. In all the more considerable towns and places where, independently of one or two public schools, there are two or more private schools of the second class, exclusive of the above mentioned schools kept by women, the parochial authorities, in concert with the school inspector of the district, shall establish a local superintendence of the primary schools, which shall consist of one or more persons, according to local circumstances,

but so as each member shall have a particular division, and all the schools in that division shall be confided to him individually. These persons shall collectively constitute, with the school inspector of the district, the local school board, and their functions shall be determined by the local regulations regarding schools, which shall be issued in conformity with the general regulations, and with the conditions previously contained in the *regulations respecting examinations*, or in the *instructions for the boards*.

ART. 11. In the towns or more considerable places described above, the inspection of the public schools, in so far as it may at present be in the hands of a committee of directors, inspectors, or other persons of the like nature, and which is not at present, and cannot be brought directly under the local committee of superintendence, shall be entrusted to the local board, or to two or more of the members thereof conjointly with an equal number of the members of the above mentioned committee. That united body shall constitute the local board for the public schools; and shall have power, under the direction and with the approbation of the parochial authorities, to settle its bye laws and mode of operation, according to circumstances, but in such a way, nevertheless, that the supervision of the instruction in these schools, and every thing connected with them, be wholly under their control.

ART. 12. The formation of these general local school boards, and the organization of the special local boards for the public schools, must take place before the expiration of two months from the promulgation of this regulation. The parochial authorities must make a report

to the provincial authorities, as well as to the provincial board of education.

The school inspector of the district shall discharge the duties of that local school inspection, until the boards shall have been established.

ART. 13. The superintendence of the private schools of the first class, shall belong to the school inspector of the district, or to the local school board, unless a system of inspection for that purpose be otherwise provided. It will nevertheless be the duty of the inspector of the district, or of the local board, to be informed as to the state and organization of those schools, in order that a report thereon be made annually to the proper authorities. The inspector, or the local board above mentioned, shall be bound to furnish to the actual inspecting authorities over these private schools, all such information and observations as may contribute to the advantage of these schools. The before mentioned inspecting authorities shall be responsible for carrying into effect all the regulations, both general and special, which have now been, or shall hereafter be issued, respecting primary instruction.

ART. 14. All masters engaged in primary instruction, and comprehended in the above Article 4, shall make themselves known, either personally or by writing, in the course of the month of July in the present year, to the school inspector of the district, or to the local school board. Such as shall then exhibit a pre-existing deed of call or nomination, shall, in title thereof, receive a certificate of general admission; and all such as may not be in possession of a deed of that description, but who in the

opinion of the inspector, or of the board shall be considered deserving of the above mentioned certificate, and shall have the approbation of the competent authorities, shall in like manner receive one. All those who shall have in this way obtained the certificate of general admission, shall be comprehended among the teachers, actually exercising a legal function, referred to in Art. 13 of the law.

ART. 15. In cases of extreme ignorance, after an admonition and previous notice by the inspector or local school board, six months at least shall be allowed; and at the expiration of that time, such masters shall be bound to exhibit to the provincial board of education, or to the local board, proofs of a commencement of improvement, in default of which they shall be either suspended or be deprived of their office, in conformity with Art. 18 and 19 of the law.

ART. 16. The enactments of Art. 13 of the law shall however not affect those persons who, having obtained from the competent authority a right to teach publicly, and to prepare young people in the higher branches of education, may be disposed to unite thereto some parts of primary instruction, whether the young persons be boarded with them or not; provided that in the case of boarders, whatever may be the number of the pupils, and in the other case, if the number shall exceed four, they give notice in writing to the provincial board, or to the local school board; it being also understood, that in teaching their pupils, they must not employ other persons than those who possess the qualifications required by Art. 13 of the law.

ART. 17. No one shall be allowed to become a candi-

date for a vacant school, or to establish a new one, or to give private lessons, without having first obtained a certificate of general admission. In like manner, no one shall be allowed to teach any other branch than that for which he shall have received a certificate of general admission.

ART. 18. In the event of a vacancy occurring in the situation of a teacher, those who have a right to become candidates shall give notice thereof, in writing, to the school inspector of the district, or to the local school board, adding the amount of the emoluments attached to the situation, in order that due notice may be given thereof.

ART. 19. In every nomination or special appointment, those who give it must deliver to the person nominated, whether public or private schoolmaster or schoolmistress, or teacher of languages, a written deed, setting forth exactly the several duties comprised therein; and these last, in all that relates to tuition, must in no case go beyond those for which the person nominated shall have been authorized by his deed of general admission. The said deed shall not confer any qualification beyond that which is granted by the nomination. These deeds, according to No. 4, Art. 13 of the law, must be exhibited to the school inspector of the district, or to the local board, before the person nominated can enter upon any duties; in order that due public notice may be given thereof.

ART. 20. Besides a call, nomination, or special appointment as teacher of languages, there must be one as schoolmaster; farther, each deed shall be valid only for the school or place for which it has been granted.

All parochial authorities shall have a right to confer a special appointment on schoolmasters, or on teachers of languages, to entitle them to give lessons in private houses within their jurisdiction; provided such schoolmasters or teachers of languages have been admitted in their province or district, with due observance of what is enacted by Art. 17 of the law; and at the conclusion of the preceding article in this regulation.

ART. 21. *A general regulation for the internal order of schools*, to be drawn up and issued by the Secretary of State for the Home Department, shall be introduced into, and observed, in every school. There shall also be a special code of regulations for each school, drawn up in conformity with the general regulations. That special code shall be modified according to the wants and particular circumstances of each school, and shall be drawn up by the respective local inspecting authorities. It shall be sanctioned, in case of need, and according to circumstances, either by the local authorities, or by the provincial authorities. All these regulations shall be sent to the provincial board of primary instruction, by whom they shall be submitted to the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

ART. 22. The instruction shall be conducted in such a manner, that the study of suitable and useful branches of knowledge shall be accompanied by an exercise of the intellectual powers, and in such a manner that the pupils shall be prepared for the practice of all social and Christian virtues.

ART. 23. Measures shall be taken that the scholars be not left without instruction in the doctrinal creed of

the religious community to which they belong ; but that part of the instruction shall not be exacted from the schoolmaster.

ART. 24. At the expiration of a given time, public schoolmasters and schoolmistresses shall not be allowed to make use of any other elementary books than those which shall be contained in the list to be drawn up and issued by the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

From that general list, every provincial board shall be at liberty to make out a special list of books for the use of the schools in their province, to the exclusion of all other books, with the understanding, however, that private teachers of the first class shall have a right to use such other books as their schools may require, with the approbation of the inspecting authorities appointed for their schools, and upon giving notice thereof to the school inspector, or to the local board, where such exists. The private teachers of the second class shall have the liberty of proposing to the school inspector of the district, or to the local board, if there be one, such books as they may deem proper for any particular branch that is taught in their schools.

A report shall be made to the first meeting of the provincial board, of all that has taken place on this head, both as regards the private schools of the first and of the second class ; which report shall be made by the school inspector of the district, and shall be submitted by the said board to the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

ART. 25. All persons who, by negligence, or by evil

intent, shall fail to comply with the conditions of the preceding Articles, shall be subject to the punishments provided in the 18th Article of the law.

ART. 26. Notwithstanding the provisions relative to the suspension or annulment of the deeds of general admission, all persons and committees who have power over the private schools of the first class, shall retain the right to deprive the teachers of those schools of their call or nomination, either temporarily or absolutely, according as they shall deem it necessary for the interest of the school. Such persons or committees shall inform the inspector of the district, or the local board, of the fact, and of their reasons, in order that due public notice may be given thereof.

ART. 27. As concerns masters of public schools, masters of private schools of the second class, school-mistresses and teachers of languages, the suspension or annulment of their deed of call, nomination, or special appointment, shall carry along with it the annulment or suspension of their deed of general admission; and due public notice thereof shall also be given.

ART. 28. In no private schools of the first class shall it be allowed that any other children be admitted to them, or be instructed therein, than those whose parents belong to the deaconry, hospital, society, or foundation to which these schools are attached, or are comprehended in the number of their inspectors or subscribers.

ART. 29. In the schools established for the poor, the children of the poor only can be admitted and taught.

In places where no such schools are established, the competent authorities shall take care that these children

be received and educated in the ordinary school, either at the expense of the deaconry to which they belong, or out of some other fund.

ART. 30. The provincial and parochial authorities are recommended to take the necessary steps :

1st. That the emoluments of the teacher (principally in rural parishes) be settled in such a way that his duties, when creditably performed, may obtain for him a sufficient livelihood, and that he be rendered as little dependent as possible, by direct aid, upon the parents of the children who frequent his school.

2d. That attendance at the schools be strictly enforced, and that they be kept open throughout the year.

The school inspector of the district shall make a report to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, of all the measures that have been taken, or are to be taken, for this end, and also of the effects that have followed therefrom, in order that such use may be made of them as the general welfare of the schools shall appear to require.

ART. 31. The Secretary of State for the Home Department shall employ all suitable means for training proper persons as teachers in primary schools, for exciting emulation among distinguished teachers, and for securing their maintenance and ameliorating their condition. He shall also adopt such measures as shall tend to spread a well regulated and truly useful education among the Batavian youth. He, as well as the provincial authorities, shall employ all their disposable means, to promote in the most effective manner, the perfecting of primary instruction ; as well as to carry into execution, and maintain in full vigour, the law and all the regulations that belong to the subject.

ART. 32. The Grand Pensionary reserves to himself the right to interpret, to restrict, and to extend the present regulation in such manner, and at such time, as he shall judge useful and necessary.

REGULATION B. *Concerning the examinations to be undergone by those who desire to become teachers in the primary schools of the Batavian Republic.*

ART. 1. The teachers shall be divided into four classes or grades, according to the amount of knowledge required, and according to the examination which they shall have passed.

The fourth or lowest class shall comprehend all such schoolmasters as are tolerably skilled in reading, writing, and the elements of arithmetic, including the rule of three, and who show some aptitude in teaching.

The third class shall be composed of those who read and write well, and are skilful in arithmetic, including fractions; and who can use these last in practical questions with facility. They must, besides, have some acquaintance with the principles of the Dutch language, and have acquired some correct ideas as to a good system of teaching.

The second class shall be assigned to all such schoolmasters as can read and recite well; who can write a good and neat hand; who are familiar with theoretical and practical arithmetic; who have advanced pretty far in a knowledge of the principles of the Dutch language; who have some acquaintance with geography and history; and who are capable of imparting a somewhat advanced degree of instruction.

The first or highest class shall consist of those who, besides being very skilful in all the different parts of primary instruction, shall possess, in an eminent degree, an acquaintance with the principles and practice of a judicious and enlightened method of teaching; to whom geography and history are familiar; who have made some progress in mathematics and mechanical philosophy; and who are distinguished by the general cultivation of their minds.

Schoolmistresses, although connected with establishments of different descriptions, shall collectively constitute one class only; and the same rule shall apply to teachers of languages.

ART. 2. Those who only desire to obtain a deed of general admission to qualify themselves as teachers of the fourth or lowest class, shall be required to undergo an examination before the school inspector of the district only, who shall make a report thereof to the board of education, in order that the latter may declare the admission, and issue the certificate thereof, if it shall have taken place.

ART. 3. All those who are desirous of obtaining a general admission as a master of the third, second, or first class, must be examined by a provincial board of education.

ART. 4. Besides the examinations which masters must pass, in order to obtain a call, nomination, or special appointment, as hereafter provided, the local school boards shall have the right to examine all persons desirous of obtaining a general admission as a teacher of languages, or as a schoolmistress. Where there is no local school board, these examinations shall take place before the school inspector of the district, or by the provincial

board, particularly in the case of the candidate proposing to teach foreign languages, or the higher branches of knowledge.

ART. 5. The provincial boards of education, the school inspectors, or the local boards shall not admit to examination for a general admission, any individuals who shall not have been domiciled, for a year preceding, in their province, district, town, or other place within their jurisdiction, except in the case of foreigners who may wish to settle there.

ART. 6. Every person desirous of passing an examination for the office of schoolmaster, schoolmistress, or teacher of languages, must appear in due time before the member of the provincial board, or before the member of the local board in whose district or section he or she resides.

If he be a foreigner, he must equally apply to the said member of the district or section in which he wishes to settle; and both the one and the other must produce, at the same time, one or more satisfactory certificates of good moral conduct and of good conduct as citizens.

The above named member shall then notify the time and place where the examination shall be held.

ART. 7. In these examinations, the object shall be, to ascertain not only the extent of knowledge of the candidate in the branches he is proposing to teach, but also his power of communicating that knowledge to others, and especially to children.

ART. 8. Before proceeding to the examination properly so called, the examiners shall endeavour to ascertain, in conversation with the candidate, his opinions on morals and religion, the sphere of his attainments, both

with regard to the most indispensable parts of primary instruction, and to foreign languages and other branches which he proposes to teach; together with his aptitude to direct, instruct, and form the character of youth.

ART. 9. The subjects of examination shall be as follows:—

1. Reading from different printed and written characters; and whether with a good pronunciation, and a proper and natural accent, and with a knowledge of punctuation.

2. Some words and phrases designedly wrong shall be shewn to the candidate, to ascertain his knowledge of orthography.

3. To ascertain the extent of his acquaintance with the grammatical structure of the Dutch language, a sentence shall be dictated to him, which he shall analyse, and point out the parts of speech; and he must give proofs of a familiar acquaintance with the declensions and conjugations.

4. The candidate shall write some lines in large, middle, and small hand, and shall make his own pens.

5. Some questions in arithmetic shall be proposed to him, confining this especially to such as are of common occurrence, and which shall be sufficient to show the dexterity of the candidate in calculations, both in whole numbers and in fractions. Questions shall be put to him on the theoretical parts, and especially on decimal arithmetic.

6. Some questions shall be proposed on the theory of singing.

7. Different questions shall be proposed relative to history, geography, natural philosophy, mathematics, and

such other branches of knowledge as the candidate proposes to teach.

8. A passage in French, or in any other language in which the candidate wishes to be examined, shall be given to him to read and to translate. A passage in Dutch shall be dictated to him, to be translated by him, either in writing or *viva voce*, into the language which forms the subject of the examination. He shall be required to give, *de improviso*, in the same language, a composition in the form of a letter or narrative, &c.; all for the purpose of ascertaining the degree of acquaintance he possesses with the language in question, in orthography, grammar, and punctuation.

ART. 10. The examination upon the acquirements of the candidate having been completed, the examiners shall proceed to inquire into his capacity for teaching; they shall question him as to the manner of teaching children to know the letters, figures, and the first principles; then reading, writing, and arithmetic.

They shall then require him to relate some story or portion of history, in order to discover the degree of talent he possesses to present things to children with clearness and precision; care shall be taken, if there be a convenient opportunity, and if it be thought advisable, to have some children present, of different ages and of different degrees of attainment, in order to ascertain more particularly his skill in practical teaching.

ART. 11. Finally, the examiners shall propose some questions upon the principles to be followed in rewards and punishments; as also in general on the best methods to be adopted, not only to develope and cultivate the intellectual faculties of children, but, most especially, to

bring them up in the exercise of the Christian virtues.

ART. 12. When the examination is concluded, the examiners shall deliver to the candidate, who desires to obtain a general admission as master, and has given proof of sufficient ability, a deed of that admission, according to the extent of his ability; and in this shall be stated, as distinctly as possible, the extent and the nature of the talent and of the acquirements of the candidate, as proved by his examination; and it shall declare the rank he has obtained, if it be in the first, second, third, or fourth class, and consequently such a general admission as shall give him a right to apply for the situation of a master, according to the rank which has been assigned to him. Finally, the said deed shall declare the branches of education, and the languages for which he shall have obtained the general admission.

ART. 13. The schoolmistresses or teachers of languages who shall have passed an examination, and have given sufficient proofs of their ability, shall also receive a deed which shall contain, besides a declaration of the extent and amount of their acquirements and talents, as proved by the examination, a general admission, either for the office of schoolmistress or teacher of languages. That deed shall moreover expressly declare the branches of study and the languages which the person examined shall be entitled to teach.

ART. 14. All the deeds mentioned in the two preceding articles shall be alike throughout the whole extent of the republic, both in the matter and the form. If they are issued by a provincial board of education, they shall be signed by the president and secretary, and the seal of

the board shall be affixed to them. The deeds issued by an inspector, or by a local board, shall be signed by the inspector only, or by the secretary of the local board.

ART. 15. The certificates for the first and second class, issued by a provincial board, shall entitle those who obtain them to be masters in all primary schools, public as well as private, of the two classes, in all places throughout the republic, without exception; whereas the deeds issued by a local board shall confer no privilege beyond that locality.

ART. 16. The certificates for the third class, as well as those for the fourth or lowest class, shall confer no privilege of becoming teachers, except in schools established in places whose wants are proportioned to the rank and capacity of such masters, and which are situated within the jurisdiction of the provincial board.

ART. 17. In order that the provisions contained in the two preceding articles may be more easily carried into effect, the schools in small towns and less considerable places, more fully described in Art. 9 of Regulation A., shall be classed by the different inspectors, and by the provincial boards, into *higher*, *middle*, and *lower* schools, upon a principle hereafter provided. This classification, which shall be submitted to the provincial authorities for approval, shall be solely for the purpose of preventing the principal schools falling into the hands of incompetent masters; while, at the same time, it leaves the power of placing a very able master over the smallest school.

ART. 18. In the towns or places of greater importance, described more fully in Art. 10 of Regulation A., no master of the fourth or lowest class shall be eligible

to either a public or a private school. The local boards are even recommended to take care, as much as possible, that the tuition in the schools of their towns shall not be entrusted to any other than *masters of the first or second class*.

ART. 19. The deed to be delivered to the masters of the first class, shall bear the title, *par excellence*, of COMPLETE CERTIFICATE. It shall not be granted to any one who has not attained the age of twenty-five ^a; the greatest strictness must be observed in granting this certificate, which shall be distinguished from all the others, in form as well as in the terms in which it is drawn up.

ART. 20. The value of the *Complete Certificate*, delivered in terms of the preceding conditions, shall be settled for each province by the local regulation; with this proviso, that the possessors of such certificates shall be entitled to examination gratis, when they are desirous of undergoing one, in order to avail themselves of the privileges belonging to them ^b.

ART. 21. The deeds of general admission, qualifying for the situation of schoolmistress or teacher of languages, shall only be valid within the limits of the jurisdiction of those by whom they have been issued.

ART. 22. A deed of general admission as teacher, of whatever rank, shall confer the privilege upon the holder, of becoming a candidate for a call, nomination, or special appointment, either as a master, or a teacher of languages.

^a The age at which each of the three other ranks may be obtained were subsequently fixed as follows: the second class at twenty-two years of age, the third class at eighteen, and the fourth class at sixteen.

^b This temporary article has been long since abolished.

But a general admission as teacher of languages, on the contrary, shall give no right to the holder to become a candidate for a call, nomination, or special appointment as a master, unless a general admission as master shall also have been obtained.

ART. 23. Masters of the three lower classes shall be at liberty to apply at any time to the board of education of the province in which they reside to be admitted into a higher class, by undergoing a fresh examination; and the most distinguished individuals in the two lower classes, shall be invited and encouraged by the school inspector of the district, or by the local school board, to come forward at the expiration of every two years to be again examined before the provincial board, until they shall have obtained a certificate as master of the second class; and on each occasion a new certificate shall be delivered to them, according to the higher rank to which they shall have been raised.

ART. 24. A list containing the name, the rank, the nature, and the extent of the abilities of each of those who shall have obtained deeds of general admission as master, mistress, or teacher of languages, shall be published through the medium of the periodical work, intituled "*Bydragen tot den Staat*," &c.* The mistresses of schools for very young children shall not be included in this list.

ART. 25. Those who shall have obtained a general admission as master, of whatsoever rank or kind it may be,

* This is very nearly our *Manual Officiel pour l'instruction primaire*. This useful compilation continues to the present day.

must undergo a second examination or comparative trial, when they are candidates for a call, nomination, or special appointment, and that comparative trial shall take place, either before the local school board, or before some other board or persons duly authorized for the purpose by those who have authority to appoint them.

ART. 26. The provincial and municipal authorities shall fix the payments to be made for the examinations ; but in such a manner,—

1st. That there shall be an increase in the rate payable for each new class, and that a due proportion shall be observed in the fees to be exacted from the different ranks of schoolmasters, schoolmistresses, and teachers of languages.

2dly. That if a person shall have paid the fee for the lower class of schoolmaster, when he obtains a higher rank, he shall not pay more in addition, than the difference between the fee for the lower class, and that for the higher class into which he has been admitted.

3dly. That if a teacher of languages shall obtain any rank as a master, he shall be considered as having thus far paid nothing towards the fee.

4thly. That those who, according to the preceding laws for the regulation of schools, shall have passed an examination for which they have paid the fee, and shall undergo a new examination in order to obtain rank, of whatever degree, shall not pay more than the difference between the amount payable for the higher rank and their former payment. All those who shall have obtained a complete certificate, are exempted from this provision.

5thly. That the fees paid for examinations which have

taken place before the school inspector of the district shall be paid over to the fund for the respective boards of education.

ART. 27. The Grand Pensionary reserves to himself the right to interpret, restrict, or extend the present regulation, as it shall appear to him to be useful and necessary.

REGULATION C. *Instruction for the School Inspectors, and for the boards of education in the different provinces of the Batavian Republic.*

ART. 1. The school inspectors shall take the utmost care that the education of the young be conducted upon an uniform system, improved, and rendered more directly and more generally useful; that the masters be really capable of imparting instruction of that nature; that their zeal be encouraged, their merit rewarded, and their condition improved; that the measures taken, or to be taken, relative to primary education be duly notified and carried into execution; that all obstacles which may present themselves be removed with prudence, in order that the improvement of primary instruction in general, may be brought before the public in an advantageous light; all in conformity with the following provisions.

ART. 2. Each inspector shall make himself acquainted with the number and situations of the primary schools, and also with the state of primary instruction throughout the whole extent of his district. It shall be his duty to see that, besides the necessary number of ordinary schools, there shall be a sufficient number of schools for children

of tender age, organized in the best possible manner, and also schools of industry. Finally, he shall take care, that proper instruction in all branches of primary education may be obtained, according to the circumstances and wants of the different parishes.

ART. 3. He shall make it his business to become personally acquainted with the different masters in his district, and with the extent of their fitness, and shall keep a note thereof. He shall be at all times accessible to those who think they require advice and explanations from him, concerning their duties: in particular cases he may require them to appear before him in person, or to address him in writing, when he shall deem it necessary.

ART. 4. He shall make it his special business to excite and maintain the zeal of the masters; and for that purpose, he shall at fixed periods require a certain number of them to meet him, either at his own house or in other parts of his district, and as frequently as possible. On these occasions, he shall converse with them on the object and nature of the important duties confided to them, and upon the best method of fulfilling them faithfully and usefully for the children ^a.

^a In compliance with the spirit of this article, societies of school-masters have been formed, under the auspices of the inspectors, at different times, in the districts of each province, which keeps up, a rivalry of improvement. They meet at stated times, generally every month. Since the year 1815 there has been an annual grant from the public purse to pay for books, &c. The Minister of the Interior divides the grant among the different districts, and each inspector renders an account of the employment of the sum given to his district.

ART. 5. The inspector shall be bound *to visit twice a year* all the schools in his district, which are directly subject to his supervision. He is hereby exhorted to repeat those visits at different times, either when a particular case calls for it, or for the general good, and as often as he can do so without imposing too heavy a duty upon himself. He shall inspect the other schools in his district from time to time ; but if these schools are under any particular superintendence, he shall not visit them without having had due communication with the persons who are so charged with them.

ART. 6. In visiting the schools which are under his direct supervision, he shall call upon the master to teach the pupils of the different classes in his presence, those which are in different stages of progress, in order that he may judge as to the manner in which the instruction is given and regulated. He shall also inquire if the regulations concerning primary instruction, as well as the regulation for the internal order of the school, are duly observed and executed ; and he shall pay attention to every thing which he believes to be of any importance. At the conclusion of the visit, the inspector shall have a private conversation with the master or mistress, upon all he has observed ; and, according as the case may be, he shall express approbation, give them advice, admonish, or censure them, upon what he may have seen and heard. Every school inspector shall keep notes of all remarks and observations which he shall have made in the course of his visits, to be used in the manner hereinafter provided.

ART. 7. In his visits to the other schools, the inspector shall not communicate to the master the remarks

and reflections he may have had occasion to note down, but shall with due discretion communicate them either to the local board or to the particular parties intrusted with their superintendence, according to the nature of the school.

ART. 8. In all matters relating to the welfare of the schools, in which the inspectors may stand in need of the assistance or co-operation of the civil power, they shall apply to the local authorities, either provincial or national, according to the nature of the business.

ART. 9. They shall pay particular attention to improve the school-rooms; to the education of the children of the poor, and especially in the villages and hamlets; to regulate and improve the incomes of the masters; and to the schools being kept open and attended without interruption, as much as possible, during the whole year. They shall for that purpose make the necessary representations to the constituted authorities, or to the persons who have power to take the necessary measures for that end; conforming, moreover, in all the provisions contained in the present and the preceding Article, to what has been declared in Art. 5 of the law.

ART. 10. They shall take care that before any master enters upon his office, he be provided with the required license of appointment, and they shall require him to produce at the same time the documents which were necessary for obtaining the special nomination. As regards the annual renewal of the patent, the persons appointed by the law for that purpose shall look after it ^a.

^a Long since become obsolete.

ART. 11. Although every school inspector be authorized in the cases, and in the manner provided by Art. 9 of Regulation A., to depute the local inspection of one or more schools to one or more persons, he shall nevertheless be held fully responsible for those schools and for the education which is given in them. He shall be bound to fulfil in person the essential duties of his office as regards those schools. The appointment of the local inspectors is merely to aid and relieve him in the discharge of his duties.

ART. 12. Being a member of every local school board established in his district, the inspector must receive notice of all their meetings, and he must attend them as often as possible, and especially on those occasions when candidates are to be examined.

He shall have access to all the schools subject to the inspection of the local boards, but he shall not be entitled to preside at those meetings in virtue of his office, nor shall he, conjointly with the other members, take part in the inspection of any section or number of schools in the place, which are confided to the personal inspection of an individual of the board.

The other members of the local boards shall possess the same powers of inspection over the primary schools in the place, each in his particular section, in the same manner as the duties of inspection are entrusted individually to the school inspectors in those situations where no local boards exist; so that every thing contained in the first nine articles of the present regulation concerning school inspectors shall apply to the members of the local boards, subject only to the alterations that the different circumstances require.

ART. 13. The inspector shall endeavour, by all suitable means, and particularly by friendly communications with the local inspectors, and with the different members of the local school boards established in his district, to have the earliest and most correct information of all changes, and of all events of importance respecting the primary schools, which may occur in any part of his district; or of any thing relating to vacancies in the office of teacher, either by death, resignation, or other cause. He shall inform himself as to the nature of the schools; of the class to which they belong; of the emoluments; of the conditions attached to the situations; as also the names, qualifications, rank and talents of the persons who shall have received a call, nomination, or special appointment to fill the vacancies throughout his district.

ART. 14. The inspector shall send monthly to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, an accurate report of all vacancies in the office of teacher, and of all new appointments, (except what concerns the schools for children of tender age,) and of every detail mentioned in the preceding article, in order that such reports may be published, in so far as it shall be thought advisable, in the periodical work entitled "*Bydragen*," &c.

ART. 15. The inspectors shall take care, in the event of a vacancy in the office of inspector in any district, whether by resignation, death, or other cause, that all the papers and documents relating to it be delivered in good order to the person who shall succeed.

ART. 16. When any such vacancy shall occur, whether by death, resignation, or other cause, the inspection of the district shall be carried on until a successor is ap-

pointed, by one or more of the inspectors belonging to that provincial board, according to a temporary arrangement to be made by the said board on each vacancy, and approved of by the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

The parties discharging the duties of a vacant inspectorship shall be entitled to all the emoluments belonging to the office.

ART. 17. The recommendations for filling up vacancies among the school inspectors of a district shall in future be made by the respective boards of education, at their first meeting after the vacancy shall have occurred, and shall be transmitted to the provincial authorities; and if any circumstances shall prevent this being done, these shall be communicated to the said authorities during the session of the board.

ART. 18. The ordinary meetings of the boards shall be held in the towns where the provincial authorities reside, at least three times a year; the one during Easter week, the other two in the second week of July and October. The particular days and hours shall be fixed by the boards themselves, who shall advertise them in the *Bydragen*.

ART. 19. Extraordinary meetings shall be held :

1. When required for one or more examinations. They shall be regulated as provided in the code of local regulations ;

2. When specially ordered, either by the Secretary of State for the Home Department, or by the provincial authorities ; and, in that case, the party calling the meeting shall defray all expenses, at a reasonable rate ;

3. When the members consider it necessary or ad-

visible to hold an extraordinary meeting; but it shall then be at their own expense.

ART. 20. All the members of the board shall be bound to be present at these meetings, and can only be excused by a case of urgent necessity.

ART. 21. The offices of president and secretary of the board shall be filled by all the members in rotation, but the length of service of any individual may be prolonged, provided it be with his consent^a.

ART. 22. If the board shall be desirous of appointing to the office of secretary a person who is not a member of the board, the proposal shall be submitted to the provincial authorities, and the appointment shall be made by the Grand Pensionary. Nevertheless, such appointment shall not carry along with it any increase of the grant assigned to each board^b.

ART. 23. These meetings, both ordinary and extraordinary, shall not be dissolved, until all the business to be transacted, shall have been duly attended to.

ART. 24. At each ordinary meeting, each member shall give in a written report :—

1. Of the schools he has visited since the last meeting, stating the time of his visit, and the observations he then made regarding the state of the schools, in all the different particulars.

^a A royal decree has transferred the office of president to the governor of the province; and by the same decree a vice president is added, who is to be chosen from among the members, conformably with the provisions in this Article relative to the president.

^b Has not been acted upon.

2. Of the meetings he has held of the schoolmasters for the purpose of communicating with them respecting their duties.

3. Of the examinations which have taken place before him of masters of the lowest class, and of the higher classes, by virtue of Art. 2 of Regulation B.; the whole accompanied by such particulars as shall be deemed of importance.

4. Of the changes and other events which shall have taken place in his district, relative to any school or schoolmaster, since the last meeting, and especially all vacancies of masterships, the delivery of deeds of call, nomination, or special appointment of every degree and of every class, setting forth the most important circumstances connected with them: the appointment of local inspectors in places of minor extent; the changes that may have occurred in the local school boards; the inspection of a new primary school or school of industry; the admission of any teacher of languages; the drawing up of any rules for the internal order of schools; the introduction of school books, other than those contained in the general list of books, in the private schools of both classes; the measures that have been taken to regulate and improve the incomes of the masters; the measures that have been taken to secure the schools being uninterruptedly kept open and attended; any difficulties they may have encountered; the encouragement or otherwise which the masters may have met with; and the examinations of pupils in the schools. The inspector shall further point out the particular parts which he wishes to have inserted in the above mentioned monthly publication (*Bydragen*).

ART. 25. From these written documents and other private information, as well as from the written reports of the local school boards, (as mentioned in the following article,) every school inspector shall draw up annually, previous to the meeting held in Easter week, a general report on the state of the schools and of primary instruction throughout his district. He shall state therein the reasons why he has not visited, or has not visited more than once, any particular school in the course of the preceding year. He shall state such proposals as appear to him deserving of attention, and which may tend to the improvement of primary instruction.

That general report, together with the ordinary written reports of the past month, shall be presented to the meeting which is held after Easter.

ART. 26. In order that the school inspectors may not omit to mention in their annual report any of the particulars stated in the preceding article, the local school boards or their individual members, in so far as concerns the schools placed under their individual inspection, shall draw up a report in writing, similar to that required from the school-inspectors, before the end of February at latest.

This report shall also contain every particular relating to the schools; it shall be presented to a meeting of the local board, and shall be transmitted afterwards to the inspector of the district, to be used by him for the before-mentioned purpose.

ART. 27. From these annual reports of the different members of the respective provincial boards, each of them shall draw up a brief and general summary of

the state of the schools and of primary instruction throughout his province; and two copies shall be made thereof.

ART. 28. At the end of the ordinary meeting the provincial boards shall forward, or cause to be forwarded, to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, within fifteen days:—

1. An authentic extract from the minutes or proceedings of that meeting, and of any extraordinary meetings that may have been held;

2. The original written reports delivered in by each member;

3. A list of the persons who shall have been examined during the sitting of the board, ordinary and extraordinary, stating the results of the examinations, and particularly the ranks which the different persons shall have obtained, in order that publication may be made of all that shall be considered necessary to be made public in the periodical work intituled *Bydragen*.

ART. 29. At the conclusion of the ordinary meeting held in Easter week, each board shall forward, or cause to be forwarded within the space of four weeks, to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, besides the documents mentioned in the preceding article,—

1. One of the two authentic copies of the annual general summary.

2. The originals of the general reports of the different members of the boards.

3. The originals of the annual written reports of the different local boards.

4. A detailed statement, taken from the report of each of the members, of the proposals which each board shall

be desirous of bringing under the consideration of the next annual general meeting, or which it has been resolved to lay before the provincial authorities.

ART. 30. A similar authentic copy of the annual general summary shall be forwarded by the board, within the same period to the provincial authorities. All the other documents shall in like manner be laid before the provincial authorities, if required, or the member of the provincial government specially entrusted with the care of the primary schools and of primary instruction. For that purpose, all the original documents forwarded to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, namely, the different written reports of the several inspectors, their annual reports, and the annual reports of the different local boards, shall be returned to the member who officiated as secretary at the last meeting, after the purpose for which they are sent to the Secretary of State shall have been served; and within the period of two months at the latest, after their receipt: and these documents shall be afterwards deposited among the papers of the respective boards.

ART. 31. The Grand Pensionary reserves to himself the right to interpret, restrict, and extend the present regulation in such manner as he shall deem advisable.

In conformity with Article 21 of the law, which is placed at the head of the present decree, the Grand Pensionary shall give public notice of the period when all former statutes, ordinances, laws, and regulations, touching the government of schools, shall be repealed and made of non-effect; and more particularly the decree of the 29th July 1803, as well as all regulations, general and particular, which were founded upon it,

In conformity therewith, we ordain and enjoin, that the present law shall be published and fixed up in all places which it concerns, and order that all whom it concerns do see that it be fully carried into execution.

Given at The Hague, the 3rd of April, 1806.

(Signed) R. J. SCHIMMELPENNINCK,
Grand Pensionary.

And, by order, The General Secretary of State,
(Signed) C. G. HULTMAN.

Programme of the Examination for a General Admission, as regards each rank in the classification of teachers; in conformity with Regulation B., Art. 9, and following; See p. 206.

FOURTH CLASS. Age of the candidate—completion of sixteenth year.

Qualifications required. Reading, writing, elements of arithmetic, and aptitude for teaching.

Details of the Examination.

First Examination. To write some lines in large text, half text, and small hand. Questions on the principles of arithmetic, application of the four rules to four problems. The candidates must mend pens which they have made.

Second Examination. Observations on the specimens of writing.—Reading different passages, printed, and written.—Questions on the manner of teaching the letters, the first elements of reading.—Numeration and arithmetic.

THIRD CLASS. Age of the candidate—completion of eighteenth year.

Qualification required. Correct knowledge of reading, writing, and arithmetic ; readiness in the application of these for ordinary purposes ; principles of orthography and grammar ; practical acquaintance with a good method of teaching.

Details of the Examination.

First Examination. Writing in large text, half text, and small hand.—Questions on the theory of arithmetic, including fractions and decimals ; problems on the four fundamental rules, applied to whole numbers and to fractions, and to the new system of weights, measures and money.—Questions on grammar, dictations in orthography, grammatical analysis. The candidates must give in, along with their copies, pens made by themselves.

Second Examination. Observations on the written subjects in the previous examination.—Reading passages in different characters ; questions on punctuation.—Explanation of the principles for holding the pen, and for the position of the body in writing.—Development of the practical system of teaching reading, grammar, and arithmetic.—Questions upon the internal order of the school-room ; upon the application of rewards and punishments, and on the means to be employed in the moral education of the children.

SECOND CLASS. Age of the candidate—completion of twenty-second year.

Qualifications required. Correct reading ; a good handwriting.—An acquaintance with arithmetic in all its parts and applications.—Rules of syntax.—Knowledge of history and geography.—Theory and practice of good methods of teaching.

Details of the Examination.

First Examination. Exercises in formal and running-hand, in large text, half text, and small hand.—Questions on the theory of fractions and proportion; application of all the rules of arithmetic; development of the new system of weights, measures, and money.—Solution of difficulties in syntax; analytical grammar and logic.—Questions on history and geography. The candidates must mend pens which they have made.

Second Examination. Observations on the written subjects of the previous examination.—Systematic reading of various passages in prose and verse; questions on punctuation; principles of the different kinds of writing.—Explanation of the right method of teaching reading, grammar, arithmetic, history, and geography, and of the means which contribute most to the development of the understanding.—Theory of rewards and punishments; questions on the discipline of schools, on the development of the moral qualities, on the repression of the vices most common in children, and on the duties which the office of master imposes. The candidate must give a narrative upon a particular subject, in which he shall introduce as many practical applications of principle as he is able, both in reference to morals and to the ordinary branches of knowledge.

FIRST CLASS. Age of the candidate—completion of the 25th year.

Qualifications required. All the branches of primary instruction; the theory and practice of good methods of teaching; a well grounded knowledge of history and geography; some acquaintance with natural philosophy.

and mathematics; and generally, a cultivated mind, an easy delivery, and a ready and correct style.

Details of the Examination.

First Examination. Exercises on different kinds of writing.—Questions upon the greater difficulties in language; on physical, political, and astronomical geography; on general history and on the history of Holland.—Problems in algebra and geometry; on natural philosophy and natural history.—Composition on a given subject.

Second Examination. Observations on the written subjects of the previous examination.—Reading passages of different kinds; principles of elocution; thorough investigation of the theory of the system of teaching.—Questions on the objects and effects of education, and on the means of accomplishing these.

SCHOOLMISTRESSES, *all included in one class.*

Qualifications required. Reading, writing, arithmetic, and an aptitude for teaching.

Details of the Examination.

First Examination. Writing large text, half text, and small hand; questions on the theory of arithmetic, and problems on the four fundamental rules.—The persons admitted for examination to mend the pens which they may have used, and which they have themselves made.

Second Examination. Observations on the written subjects of the previous examination.—Reading of different passages.—Questions on the manner of teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic.—Questions on the internal order and discipline of schools for girls.

Observation. Schoolmistresses who wish to carry their teaching farther, may require to be examined on grammar, geography, history, and generally upon all the branches which they propose to teach, in order that their certificate of competency may make mention of, and authorize the teaching of the same.

TEACHERS OF LANGUAGES, all included in one class.

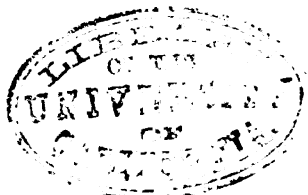
Qualifications required. A perfect knowledge of the language which the candidates propose to teach; systematic explanation of the principles of both languages.

Details of the Examination.

First Examination. Questions on the particular rules of each language.—Dictations for orthography.—Translation of some passages.—Composition on a given subject.

Second Examination. Observations on the written subjects of the previous examination.—Reading aloud.—Questions on the method to be pursued in teaching each language.

Observations. Persons who, without professing to teach publicly, are desirous of obtaining a certificate of competency as private tutors, shall be examined in all the branches they propose to teach, and which must be specifically mentioned as such in their certificate. The same rule shall apply to those masters who, although belonging to the lower classes of teachers, are desirous of instructing their pupils in geography, linear drawing, &c. The certificate, in every case, must state the different branches of instruction which the person in whose favour it is granted is authorized to teach.



Regulation respecting the general order to be observed in the primary schools of the Batavian Republic ; issued the 23rd of May 1806.

THE Secretary of State for the Home Department in the Batavian Republic hereby makes known, that by virtue of Art. 21 of the Law on Primary Instruction, dated the 3rd of April of the present year, he now issues the following regulation for the order to be adopted and followed in all the primary schools of the Batavian Republic.

ART. 1. The primary schools shall be open without intermission the whole year, except during the times fixed for the holidays.

ART. 2. During the whole time devoted to the lessons, the master shall be present from the beginning to the end ; he shall not be engaged in any thing which is unconnected with the teaching, nor absent himself from school, except for reasons of absolute necessity.

ART. 3. The master shall take care that the pupils do not unnecessarily go out of school ; and especially that they be quiet and attentive ; and, when in the playground, that they always conduct themselves in a peaceable, respectable, and modest manner.

ART. 4. When the number of pupils shall exceed seventy, measures shall be taken for providing a second master or an under master.

ART. 5. The pupils shall be entered, as much as possible, at fixed terms in the course of the year.

ART. 6. At the opening and at the breaking up of each class, a Christian prayer, solemn, short, and suitable

to the occasion, shall be said daily or weekly. At the same time, a hymn, adapted to the circumstances, may be sung.

ART. 7. The pupils shall be divided into three classes, each of which shall have its distinct place ; and, on every occasion when the school meets, each shall receive the instruction that belongs to it.

ART. 8. The instruction shall be communicated simultaneously to all the pupils in the same class : and the master shall take care that, during that time, the pupils in the two other classes are usefully employed.

ART. 9. The instruction in the different classes, and in the different branches taught, shall be as much as possible conveyed by the use of the black board.

ART. 10. When the master shall think it advisable, he shall reward the most advanced pupils by employing them to teach some parts of the lessons to the beginners.

ART. 11. The master shall take care that the pupils be at all times clean in their dress, well washed and combed, and he shall at the same time pay the strictest attention to every thing that may contribute to their health.

ART. 12. The school-rooms shall be at all times kept in proper order ; for that purpose they shall be ventilated in the intervals of school hours, and cleaned out twice a week.

ART. 13. An examination of each school shall take place at least once a year. Upon that occasion the pupils of a lower class shall be passed to a higher ; and as far as circumstances will allow, rewards shall be given to those who have distinguished themselves by their application and good conduct.

ART. 14. When a pupil at the end of the course of study shall leave the school, if he shall have distinguished himself by the progress he has made and by his good conduct, a certificate of honour shall be presented to him.

ART. 15. A code of regulations shall be drawn up for each particular school, and this, whether written or printed, shall be pasted on a board, hung up in the room, and from time to time read and explained by the master.

ART. 16. The said codes shall be issued by the authorities over each school; their object shall be, to regulate the hours of teaching and how these shall be divided among the three classes.

In order that no person may pretend ignorance, the present regulation shall be published and fixed up in the customary way, in all places which it concerns.

Given at The Hague, the 23rd of May, 1806.

(Signed) WENCKEBACH,

Secretary of State for the Home Department.

APPENDIX B.

Measures adopted to secure instruction, in the doctrinal parts of religion, to the children belonging to each communion.

It is stipulated, in Article 23rd of Regulation A. for the primary schools, that as the masters are prohibited from teaching any particular doctrine, measures shall be adopted to prevent the children from being deprived of instruction in the doctrines of the religious communion to which they belong. The Secretary of State for the Home Department therefore issued on the 30th of May, 1806, a circular letter to the different ecclesiastical bodies in the country, which was in the following terms :—

THE SECRETARY OF STATE FOR THE HOME DEPARTMENT,

To all Synods of the Reformed Church, both Dutch and Walloon ; Consistories of the Lutheran Church, Remonstrants and Mennonites ; and Prelates of the Roman Catholic Church :—

GENTLEMEN,

The great importance which the government attaches to primary instruction in this republic cannot have escaped your observation. None of its duties are held

by it in higher estimation. May the improved establishments for education yield, under the divine blessing, the fruits which they seem to promise ! They will arrest the progress of immorality in our native land, and the pure principles of Christian and social virtues will, by their means, be implanted and nurtured in the hearts of future generations. It cannot be doubted that such at least is the most ardent wish of government, and its chief aim in the improvement of the primary schools. In the decree of the 3rd of April last, concerning primary schools, that intention is made manifest by the clearest evidence. The school is not viewed as a means of conveying useful knowledge only, but is established as a powerful auxiliary in the improvement of morals.

Upon the same principle, the government expects that you will give your support and assistance to these educational establishments ; and invites you, by the present communication, to employ your powerful influence for that end.

There is one especial part of the education of the young, in which the government claims your co-operation ; namely, their instruction in the doctrines of the different communions.

You must be well aware that throughout the whole extent of our country, there has, hitherto, hardly existed a single school in which the master has given a properly regulated religious education. Religious instruction in the schools has gone no farther than to impress upon the memory of the children, and make them repeat, the questions and answers in some catechism. There was, however, no ground to expect more from the master, for several reasons. Although the government indulges the

hope that the newly established schools will lead to the salutary result, that a regularly organized system of instruction in the Christian religion, in so far as concerns the historical parts, and Christian morals, will be gradually introduced ; but, in the present state of things, it does not consider itself entitled to impose an obligation upon the masters to teach the doctrines of particular sects.

If government has thought it necessary, on that account, to separate instruction in particular doctrines entirely from ordinary teaching in the school, it does not attach less importance to the duty of providing that the children shall not be deprived of that instruction ; and therefore, having full confidence in your good dispositions to promote these salutary ends and the welfare of the young, government has considered that it could adopt no measure more effective than to address the different ecclesiastical bodies in this republic ; and to invite you, as I now do by this letter, to take upon yourselves the whole religious instruction of the young, either by properly arranged lessons in the catechism, or by any other means. I shall be glad to learn what measures you may adopt ; whether they are to be new, or the revival of former methods.

As you will doubtless consider it important to communicate the contents of this letter to the different ministers of the congregations within your several jurisdictions, I request you to inform me what number of copies you wish to have for that purpose ; and I conclude with commending you to the protection of the Most High.

(Signed) HEND. VAN STRALEN.

THE ANSWERS.

The Synod of the Dutch Reformed Church in South Holland, to His Excellency the Minister of the Interior.

THE Synod of the Dutch Reformed Church in South Holland, having received a circular letter from the Secretary of State for the Home Department of the Batavian Republic, dated The Hague, the 30th of May 1806, containing an expression of the wishes of government that this synod should support and promote the establishments for education now existing, and an invitation to co-operate, especially, in the teaching of the doctrinal parts of our church, &c., &c. ; they have the honour to state in reply to your Excellency ;

1st. That this Christian synod have received with heart-felt joy this mark of confidence in the zeal and good dispositions of the ministers of the reformed religion. Honoured by this confidence, the synod assure your Excellency, that the ministers within their jurisdiction have never ceased to render themselves worthy of it ; either by giving religious instruction, or by other unwearied exertions, (however difficult the circumstances may have sometimes been,) and in which they will continue with the same zeal ; flattering themselves that the intention of the government, so clearly manifested, and of which the synod have never entertained a doubt, will wholly eradicate the prejudice excited against the new schools, that they would have a tendency to suppress instruction in the doctrines of religion, and substitute, in its stead, doctrines and exhortations merely of a moral

nature ; and the synod will therefore most sincerely exhort the ministers within their jurisdiction to continue to do that which they have always hitherto done ; namely, to recommend, in their sermons at church, in their pastoral visits, and upon all occasions, an assiduous attendance at school.

2dly. That the circular letter we have received shall be communicated to the different classes, and by them to the individual churches, (for which purpose, in compliance with the offer of your Excellency, we request to have 322 copies,) in order that the consistories may communicate it, officially to the schoolmasters in their respective parishes ; adding, that the synod feel confident that the masters will promote, by every means in their power, the salutary intentions of the government, by never failing to exhort the pupils and their parents to take due advantage of the lessons in the catechism given by the ministers of the religious communion to which they belong ; and that they will undertake the moderate trouble of sending from time to time to the consistory, once a quarter, for example, a list containing the names of the children of the Reformed Church who attend their school, distinguishing those who are sufficiently advanced in reading to derive benefit from the instruction of the ministers ; and adding besides, at least in the towns, the places where they live, in order that the several ministers may be informed of these particulars, for their guidance in their own districts.

3dly. That the consistories on their side, will every three months send a committee to visit the schools at a convenient hour, for the purpose of obtaining information from the master, as to the greater or less assiduity of the pupils in their studies ; they will at the same time make

themselves acquainted with the progress of the children ; and if they find them too young, they will exhort them to a zealous and good conduct in order that they may sooner have the honour and advantage of being sent by their master to be instructed in the catechism. The masters ought never to miss an opportunity of instilling into the minds of the pupils, that it is an honour and an advantage to attend the religious instruction.

4thly. That the above-named committee will call upon the governors of the orphan asylums and workhouses, especially those in which the children brought up there, or the majority of them, belong to the reformed religion : that they will impress upon them the great importance which the government attaches to religious instruction, and especially the doctrinal parts ; and that they will advise with the above-named governors, as to the best means of fulfilling the views of government, with respect to the children under their care.

The synod does not doubt that these governors will most willingly place the schoolmasters employed in their establishments entirely under the direction of the above-named committee ; and that they will not hesitate, in the event of a vacancy, to confer with the committee as to the appointment of the successor ; as it is evident that the government confides that branch of instruction exclusively to the synod, and consequently to the consistories within their jurisdiction, who are responsible to the synod.

5thly. The synod take the liberty to request that your Excellency will be pleased to direct, that the circular letter be communicated to the Commissioner of Primary Instruction, and through him to the school inspectors and the local school boards, in order that they may know that

the consistories have no view of introducing any changes in the school regulations, nor intend to intermeddle in any thing beyond their proper sphere, but that they have received a special mandate *ad hoc* from the government; that the said inspectors and local boards should further be invited, upon the occasion of the distribution of the prizes or other rewards, to take into account the favourable or unfavourable report that may be made to them relative to the attendance of the children on the religious instruction, and to the zeal which they may have evinced. The committees of the consistories will, on their part, engage to inform the inspectors and local boards, from time to time, as to the application and zeal of the children who attend the religious instruction; and should they meet with any obstruction on the part of the masters, they will lay their complaints before the inspectors or local boards.

As soon as the deputies from the synod shall have received from your Excellency a favourable answer, and which the synod rely upon with confidence, they will inform the classes thereof, in order that they may lose no time in carrying these arrangements into effect.

The synod commend your Excellency to the protection of our God and Saviour Jesus Christ. They beg your Excellency to accept the assurance of their consideration and confidence, and have the honour to be,

Your very humble Servants.

(Signed in the name of the Synod,)

D. J. VAN BRANDENBURGH,
Minister at Delft.

Delfshaven, 8th August, 1806.

*Extract from the Minutes of the Proceedings of the
Minister of the Interior.*

THURSDAY, 25 September, 1806, No. 8.—Heard the report of Commissioner Van den Ende on several communications transmitted by the Synods of the Dutch Reformed Church in the provinces of South Holland, North Holland, and Gelderland; being their answers, all nearly in the same terms, to the circular letter of the Secretary of State for the Home Department, dated the 30th of May last; containing,—

1. The assurance of the earnestness of the above-named synods to second in the most effective manner the views of the government in the work which has been begun, of improving the establishments for education, and in particular the provisions set forth in the above-named circular; by exhorting the clergy, within their jurisdictions, to recommend on every occasion an assiduous attendance at school.

2. Various decrees of the synods on that subject, with the view;—

In the first place, to have the above-named circular communicated to the consistories, with a recommendation to them to send it officially to the respective schoolmasters, in the full belief that these last will not hesitate to exhort their pupils to attend assiduously the religious instruction given by the ministers of the different religious communions to which they belong, and that they will willingly engage to send, regularly, a list of the names of their pupils belonging to the reformed church;

Secondly, that the consistories shall send committees every quarter to visit the schools, in order to inform

the master of the greater or less assiduity of the pupils in their religious exercises, and to learn also if there be any children in the school able to derive benefit from the lessons in the catechism ;

Lastly, that the above-named committees shall wait upon the governors of orphan asylums and workhouses where all the children brought up there, or at least the greater part, belong to the Reformed Church ; in order to advise with them as to the means of fulfilling, in respect of those children, the views of the government, &c.

3. To have their resolutions communicated to the school inspectors and the local boards, and to receive a favourable answer to the proposals they contain, and which have been adopted by the respective synods.

In conformity with which, it is decreed :—

1. That the respective synods, above named, be informed of the satisfaction with which the government has learned their benevolent and unanimous wishes for the prosperity of the establishments for education, and that they are to co-operate in what concerns, in particular, instruction in the doctrinal parts of religion ; and that the Secretary of State for the Home Department will supply them with the number of copies of the circular letter which they have asked for. These various measures open up a prospect, which widens every day, of the happiest results from the benevolent intentions of government in favour of the young ; and justify a fervent hope that, by the powerful support which the above named communications, and others in answer to the said circular letter, authorize us to expect the schools will henceforth receive from the Reformed and other churches, the work of improving the schools, which has been com-

menced, will become, under the divine blessing, a powerful auxiliary in spreading moral and religious sentiments throughout our native land ; which, in former days, held in these respects so eminent and so dignified a position. This sacred object the government will never cease to keep in view ; and it will endeavour to profit by the suggestions contained in the various answers received to the above named circular letter. That the government at the same time hereby gives its assent to the measures which have been adopted by the synods, as stated in their respective communications, relative to a regular instruction of all the pupils belonging to the Reformed Church, in the doctrinal parts of religion.

2. That the respective members of the provincial boards of education are hereby authorized :—

A. To exhort all schoolmasters, public as well as private, and all schoolmistresses, to transmit to the respective consistories or other ecclesiastical persons in their parish, when they shall be asked so to do, a list of the names, and, in the towns, of the residences also of their pupils belonging to the religious communion by whom the application shall be made : to complete that list every six months, and farther to take especial care that their pupils assiduously attend the religious instruction which shall be provided for them by the respective ministers of their communion ; with power to the above named committees of the consistories or other ecclesiastical persons to inquire, if they shall judge it necessary, in the schools themselves, as to all matters relating to the religious instruction.

B. To invite the respective governors of orphan asylums and workhouses, or other establishments of the same

nature, where children and young persons of both sexes are admitted and brought up, to second in the most efficacious manner possible the consistories of the communions to which the children in their establishments belong, in all the measures they take to fulfil the views of the government, relative to instruction in the doctrines of their religious communion; and to advise with them on the best means of attaining that end, with respect to the young persons confided to their parental care.

C. To exhort the school inspectors, and, through them, the local boards, either at present instituted or to be instituted, in uniformity with Art. 10 of Regulation A., as they are hereby exhorted, to second by every means in their power the ministers of the various religious communions in that which is specially confided to them by the government, with respect to instruction in the doctrines of their religion; and moreover to pay every suitable attention to their advice, suggestions, or complaints on that subject, for the encouragement of this instruction: and the above named inspectors, and through them the local boards, are hereby informed that by express declarations which accompany the before recited requests of the synods, the said synods have no wish to intermeddle with any thing concerning the supervision of the schools; the consistories and the ministers of the different communions confining themselves to that which concerns instruction in the doctrines of their communions, and abstaining from all assumption of authority or influence over the teachers, or the business of the school, as things which belong exclusively and wholly to the government, and to the persons expressly named or qualified for that purpose by the government.

An extract of the present decree shall be forwarded, in the usual manner, to the three synods of the Dutch Reformed Church in the provinces of South Holland, North Holland, and Gelderland, and also to the provincial boards of primary instruction; and farther, the communication of the first mentioned synod (those of the two others being in their contents entirely conformable to it) shall be inserted in the *Bydragen*, for the information of such persons or public bodies as are mentioned in the present decree.

(Signed)

WENCKEBACH.

It appears from the above extract that other synods have returned answers to the circular letter of the 30th May last, and that the resolutions referred to in that extract also emanate directly from the synods of North Holland and of Gelderland.

In like manner, several other synods of the Reformed Churches, as well as other communions, have sent answers to the above named circular letter; and all these bear witness to the earnestness of the different communions to support the government in its efforts for the improvement of the primary schools; and to their anxious wishes to instil moral and religious sentiments into the hearts of the young, by spreading, and fostering, and encouraging religious instruction.

The government could not, in truth, expect any other disposition on the part of those venerable persons, whose vocation it is to labour unceasingly to turn the hearts of

their congregations to the practice of morality and religion ; and whose indispensable duty it is to neglect no occasion for that purpose, especially such as the government shall point out. Nevertheless, the government cannot but view with satisfaction such demonstrations of support and co-operation as are contained in the above mentioned communications, which the clergy of the different persuasions have with so much unanimity transmitted ; as set forth in the answer, inserted above, of the synod of the Dutch Reformed Church of South Holland, with which the answers of the synods of North Holland and of Gelderland are in perfect accordance ; and as will farther appear by the following communications which have been received, in answer to the same circular letter.

SIR,

In reply to your communication of the 30th May last, which I had the honour to receive on the 10th instant, I have the honour to state, that as good schools cannot but produce the most desirable results in preparing the young for the exercise not only of social but of religious virtues, there cannot be a doubt that all the ministers of the different religious communions in general, and those of the Roman Catholic persuasion in particular, will attach the highest interest to the measures which have been, or may hereafter be, taken by the government for that object ; and that they will consider it a matter of duty to co-operate on their part, as far as it is possible for them to do so. I request that you will supply me with sixty copies of your letter, that I may distribute them among the clergy of the church to which I belong.

The Roman Catholic clergy will most willingly undertake to instruct the children in the doctrines of their religion, and will teach them the catechism in the churches on such days and at such hours as shall be considered best suited to the circumstances of their respective parishes; and I shall communicate on the subject with the priests who are under my jurisdiction. I embrace the present opportunity to take the liberty of calling the attention of your Excellency to a circumstance deserving of notice.

Sunday is the only day, especially in rural districts, on which religious instruction can be regularly given to the children of labourers and artisans; but an abuse which becomes more and more prevalent, throws a great obstacle in the way of the efforts of the clergy; working on the Lord's day becoming more and more general among all classes of the people. Artisans of all descriptions frequently work in public on Sundays, and if notice be taken of it, they excuse themselves by saying, that a refusal on their part would be followed by a loss of employment. Others follow the example, and thus a large number of children are cut off from religious instruction.

Now as in all Christian communities, Sunday is consecrated to religious instruction and religious duties; and most assuredly the clergy have ample need of that day to teach the young, and especially the lower orders of the people; it is to be wished that government should adopt some effective measures to facilitate the duties of the clergy in this matter, and to eradicate the evil I have just pointed out.

I pray you, Sir, if possible, to bring the subject under

the paternal eye of the government, in order that it may be attended to.

I have the honour to be, with the highest regard,

Sir,

Your Excellency's very humble servant,

(Signed)

J. VAN ENGELLEN,

Chief Priest.

Mannsen, 13 June, 1806.

SIR,

The letter of your Excellency of the 30th of May last, reached me on the 10th of this month.

I confess that I read its contents with joy; and I flatter myself, that the rest of the clergy in this province, as well as myself, will heartily respond to the beneficial views of the Batavian government, and that we shall shew ourselves worthy of its confidence.

It is, in my opinion, very necessary that schoolmasters should abstain from teaching the doctrinal points of different sects, in order that harmony, friendship, and charity may reign among them. I would only except the case of a master, of well-known probity and ability, whose pupils all belong to one persuasion. Unless this course be followed, the children will find out but too soon that they are not all of one religious faith; mutual reproaches will take place; and many teachers will be at no pains to repress that spirit. It will be at first only a childish dispute, but as the children grow up, alienation will increase more and more; rancour will take

root in their hearts; and the whole sum of their religion will be a false zeal, which a truly religious mind and Christian charity condemn and abhor.

To accomplish the salutary end which the government has in view, and in furtherance of which it has called upon us for our earnest co-operation, we must begin with the children; and although by the discipline of our church, instruction in the dogmas of our faith is enjoined, nevertheless, the exhortations of a government that sets so high a value on the welfare of the young, will carry us forward with increased ardour in the fulfilment of our duties. We shall in that way endeavour to give a proof of our obedience, our esteem, and our respect; and we shall at the same time pray to God to bless these efforts of the government for the promotion of the general weal.

There are thirty ministers in this province, and I shall not fail to send a copy of the circular letter to each of them, as soon as I shall have received the requisite number.

I have the honour to be, with all due respect,

Sir,

Your Excellency's very humble Servant,

(Signed)

H. DE HAAS,

Chief Priest of Friesland.

Sneek, 13 June, 1806.

SIR,

We have heard with delight, by the circular letter transmitted to us on the 31st of May, of the plan for the

improvement of schools which has been introduced. We trust that every thing will respond to the salutary intentions of the government. We shall, on our part, be in no degree wanting in contributing thereto, by affording to the poor children of our communion, the means of learning their religion, in the different parishes where our fraternity has any jurisdiction; and for that purpose we request your Excellency will supply us with twelve copies of the above named circular letter.

Commending your Excellency to the protection of the Most High, we have the honour to subscribe ourselves, with respect and regard,

Sir,

Your Excellency's very humble Servants,
THE CONSISTORY of the restored Lutheran Church,
And in their name,

(Signed) J. N. HAMELAN, Secretary.

Amsterdam, 23 June, 1806.

The Consistory of the Mennonite Church of Harlingen
to the Secretary of State for the Home Department at
The Hague:

Harlingen, 18 June, 1806.

SIR,

We duly received the circular letter of the 30th of May last, which your Excellency has addressed to us.

The consistory has viewed with lively satisfaction, in the contents of that letter, the noble efforts of the government to improve the schools; which, gradually carried into effect, must promote the cultivation of the

moral powers, and tend to increase all Christian and social virtues, as well as communicate that elementary and indispensable knowledge which is usually the objects of school education.

The Consistory at the same time desire to express their earnest wish to aid, as far as depends upon them, the beneficent exertions of the government in this matter; and they flatter themselves that the establishments which are now devoted to that object, and which have long existed, in our community, will respond to the wishes which the government has manifested.

Our ministers, besides their duties in the church service, are expressly required, by their deed of appointment, regularly to instruct the young in the principles of religion, and they do so with assiduity and fidelity. Every Sunday throughout the year, a considerable number of children are so instructed; and this is further promoted by a gratuitous distribution of books among the pupils, according to their several merits; the ministers are enabled to do this, by a considerable sum which is set aside for that purpose by the consistory.

We have, besides, during the greater part of the year, particular exercises for the more advanced pupils; to whom questions are given upon the principal truths and duties of religion, and their answers are examined by the ministers. There are also, once a week, lessons in the catechism at the orphan asylum belonging to our community.

We feel assured, therefore, that in our community, proper measures have been already adopted, and that they will not fail to be taken in future, in order that the young be never left without the means of

instruction, according to their ability and their wants, in the doctrines of religion ; although, in consequence of the present state of things, and for good reasons, that kind of instruction be not given in the primary schools.

To enable your Excellency the better to judge of the religious instruction suited to the young, and which we give, we have the honour to transmit herewith to your Excellency the two elementary books which are made use of in our community, and which serve as a guide to our ministers.

Believing that in what we have now said we have replied to the special request, and have fulfilled the wishes of your Excellency, we commend you individually, and the sacred interests of our native land, to the grace and protection of God.

(Signed) FREERK HOEKSTRA.

SIR,

Nothing is, or could be, more agreeable to us, than to perceive that the government is of itself taking a warm interest in the primary schools. It is true that in this city we have the advantage of having had an improved system of teaching introduced into several schools, and particularly into the schools for the poor ; but we can well understand that, in order to introduce these salutary improvements into all the schools in our city, and in the country generally, both as regards the subjects taught, and the moral training of the children, the interposition of the authority and power of government was necessary ; and it was therefore with heartfelt joy that we learned

from the circular letter of the then Secretary of State for the Home Department, Mr. H. Van Stralen, dated the 30th of May, 1806, that these views were to be acted upon. We congratulate our country upon it, and we shall use our most cordial endeavours to second the efforts of the government by every means in our power, and we shall support and assist with all the influence we possess the schools which it may establish.

With regard to instruction in the doctrinal parts of our religion, we have the honour to acquaint your Excellency, that in all times our community has provided that the doctrinal truths of our confession should be inculcated in our religious discourses, as the foundation and the motives of true Christian virtues ; that the same principles are inculcated in our public weekly lectures on the catechism, which our ministers give to the teachers of the catechism, in order to render them more able to discharge their duties ; and that our ministers and those teachers instruct the young separately. As a proof of the measures we have taken in this matter, we may state, that when by the benevolent provisions made by the authorities of our city, an improved system of instruction was introduced into the district schools for the poor of all religious denominations, the overseers of our poor not only availed themselves with eagerness of that opportunity in behalf of the children of the poor whose parents they support, but they themselves provided that religious instruction by able teachers, should be given every week in our two churches.

Imploring the blessing of the Most High upon your Excellency, in all your undertakings, and especially in the important charge confided to you, for the welfare of the

state and of the nation, we have the honour to be, with
all due respect,

Your Excellency's very humble servants,

THE CONSISTORY of Christians of the Confession of
Augsbourg ; and in their name,

(Signed) J. P. HOLSTEYR, Secretary.

Amsterdam, Oct. 1806.

APPENDIX C.

Decree of the 20th March, 1814, restoring the operation of the law of the 3rd April, 1806, relative to Primary Schools.

WE, WILLIAM, by the grace of God, Sovereign Prince of the Netherlands, &c., &c.

Taking into consideration that, during the dominion of the French, primary instruction has not been treated with that attention, nor supplied with those full means of support which it deserves, and which it had received, under the preceding government in this country,

And it being our wish that an object of so great importance should, as soon as possible, be re-established on that footing which is generally acknowledged as the most useful and efficacious, and recommended as such by experience :

Having heard the proposal of our Commissioner-General for the Home Department,

We hereby decree—

ART. 1. The law of the 3rd April, 1806, shall continue to be considered as the fundamental law for the schools in the Netherlands. All the general or special regulations which are founded upon it shall not only be

maintained in the provinces where they have been already introduced, but shall also be enforced, excepting such modifications as may be necessary, in all parts of the State, which in the year 1806 were separated from it, and which have been recently reunited to it, or may be reunited hereafter.

ART. 2. In filling up the places of teachers which are vacant, the legally qualified candidates, convened in the hitherto accustomed manner, shall be subjected to a comparative trial, and our Commissioner-General for the Home Department, after having received the report of the result of that trial, shall grant authority for the nomination or appointment being made, and shall deliver the deed thereof.

ART. 3. Our Commissioner-General for the Home Department shall hereafter lay before us his views upon the question, whether, and to what extent, the expense of instruction can be suitably provided for by any other means than by grants of the public money; and especially as to what, in that case, it would be necessary to decree relative to the parochial endowments for schools, whether now existing, or to be established, or to be increased hereafter.

ART. 4. Nevertheless, until we shall have come to a final determination on that matter, and reckoning from the 1st December, 1813, there shall be paid from the public purse to all teachers, the same salaries or grants which they received before the incorporation of the country with France; to be charged either upon the public revenue or upon some other general fund.

ART. 5. Our Commissioner-General for the Home Department is charged with the execution of the present

decree, which shall be laid before the board of Public Accounts, and advertised in the official newspaper.

(Signed)

WILLIAM.

By order of His Royal Highness,

A. R. FALCK.

APPENDIX D.

Part First of the Report on the establishments for Public Instruction in Holland, by M. Cuvier, Member of the Council; and M. Noel, Member of the Council and Inspector-General of the Imperial University.—1811.

It would be difficult to describe the effect produced upon us by the first primary school we entered, on our arrival in Holland. It was one of those maintained at the public expense, for the children of the poorest classes, for those who, in so many other countries, are left to drag out a miserable existence on the highways, exercising the trade of beggars, until they have become strong enough to follow that of thieves. Two large rooms, well lighted and well ventilated, contained three hundred of those children, all cleanly dressed, arranging themselves without any confusion, without noise, without rudeness, doing all they were desired, in obedience to signals, without the necessity of the master saying a word. They learn by sure and ready methods, to read fluently, to write a good and correct hand, to understand such arithmetic as is required for ordinary life, both mental and written, and to express

their thoughts clearly in short written exercises. The books put into their hands, and the examples they get to write, advance by such judicious gradations, and the precepts and examples are intermingled so skilfully, that the children imbibe, at one and the same time, the truths of religion, the maxims of morality, and that knowledge which will be useful to them, and afford them consolation in their unhappy lot. By means of frequent questions, and by encouraging them to state their difficulties, it is fully ascertained that they understand what they read. Prayers, and hymns sung by the whole school, both composed expressly for these children, and all breathing a spirit of duty and of gratitude, give a charm to the business of teaching, while at the same time they impress upon it a religious and benevolent character, calculated to produce lasting effects. One master, and two assistants, who might themselves be taken for pupils, maintain complete order among this large number of children, without any speaking, or angry words, or corporal punishment; but by interesting them in what they are about, and keeping their attention constantly alive.

The first sight of the school gave us an agreeable feeling of surprise; but when we entered into an examination of the details, it was impossible not to be sensibly affected, when one considered what these children would have come to, had they been left unnoticed, and what they then were. But we said to ourselves, this is perhaps a solitary case, the result of the exertions of a wealthy town, or of the zeal of some citizens of unusual liberality; we were assured, however, that the more we travelled through the country the more we should

see reason to alter that opinion; and so it turned out, for wherever we went, we found primary schools on the same plan, with the exception of some few instances, in which superannuated teachers could not shake off their old habits of routine. Nor was it in the towns that we found them the best; even on the frontiers of the country, in Groningen, and many leagues from the great lines of communication, we saw primary schools in villages as numerous attended, and composed of a better class of children, and altogether of a better description, than those in the great towns: in the latter, the children of the opulent classes are educated at home, whereas in the villages they go to school like other children. Wherever we went, we witnessed the same gaiety, the same propriety, the same neatness, both in the pupils and the master, and every where the same kind of instruction.

The most remarkable thing of all is, that they have arrived at this state of excellence in a few years; by means simple in themselves, without constraint, without exacting any sacrifice on the part of the masters, without imposing any other obligations upon them than those belonging to them as citizens and as public functionaries. A short account of this important operation is essential to the right fulfilment of our object.

Thirty years ago, the inferior schools of Holland resembled those of the same class in other countries. Masters, nearly as ignorant as the children they had to teach, succeeded with difficulty to impart, in several years, a slender amount of instruction in reading and writing to a small number of scholars. There was no general superintendence of the schools; the most of them were set up on private speculation: the different

religious sects maintained several for their poor, under the supervision of their deacons; but these schools were exclusively for the children of the parish; those whose parents did not belong to some particular church were not provided for; the Catholics had no schools of the sort, although so numerous in the country; and as the deacons of the Reformed churches go out of office by rotation, their superintendence was not directed by any settled principles. The result of all these circumstances was, that a large proportion of the young were sunk in ignorance and immorality.

The first improvements that took place, and the plan upon which they were farther extended, emanated from a charitable association, called the Society for the Public Good, (*de Maatschappij tot Nut van 't algemeen*,) founded by the zeal of a pious and benevolent individual. The numerous associations which had been formed in the United Provinces for the advancement of science, had a long time before induced some individuals to employ the same powerful means, to disseminate moral and religious sentiments among the people, and several of these charitable societies still exist; without their activity having been in any degree relaxed by the events of which this country has been the theatre.

JOHN NIEUWENHUIZEN, a Mennonite clergyman at Monnikendam, in North Holland, who had watched the operations of these societies with great interest, perceived that they did not yield all the good they were capable of producing, because the books they published were too diffuse, too learned, too dear to be bought by those for whom they were intended; and because there did not exist a sufficiently intimate bond between the societies

and that portion of the people to whom they could be of most service. Having conceived a more simple plan, and a more direct way of going to work, he began, about the year 1784, by getting some friends to combine together; these soon induced others to join, and the usefulness of the scheme, once known, increased the number of members so much that, in 1785, they were obliged to divide the association according to the districts where there was the largest number of subscribers. To these divisions they gave the name of *departments*; each of these had its committee of management, and the number of them increased in proportion as the society became more and more extended. At last, the advantages of the institution were so apparent to all charitably disposed persons, and the various governments which succeeded each other participated so strongly in the public feeling, that its prosperity has been constantly on the increase; its departments now extend to the Cape of Good Hope; and in 1809, it consisted of more than 7000 members^a.

The funds of the society were applied, in the first instance, to encourage, by prizes, the preparation of small books; in which the most important truths of religion and morals were treated in a popular style. By degrees they had works drawn up and published on whatever is most important for the lower classes to be made acquainted with, relative to morals, domestic economy, mechanical science, and the art of preserving health. Some were also published bearing directly on

^a See the Memoirs of the Society—*Gedenkschriften der Maatschappij tot Nut van 't algemeen*, &c. Amsterdam, 1809, in 8vo.

particular trades ; and neither vaccination nor the education of midwives were lost sight of. The effect of these books, which were simple, short, and cheap, was very soon apparent : of which we shall give one proof. There existed in Holland, as elsewhere, a so-called Shepherd's Almanack, filled with puerile advices and recipés, derived from astrology ; and, as in other places, the peasantry would have no other. The society drew up a calendar, in which some useful observations on agriculture, or on the preservation of health, were substituted for the former trash ; and such was its success that, at the end of two or three years, the editor of the Shepherd's Almanack was obliged to give it up.

Education, however, was always the great object of the thoughts and labours of the Society for the Public Good ; and the history of its achievements in this matter may be divided into three distinct branches : first, the researches to which it gave rise, on the physical education of children, upon the best methods of teaching, and upon moral education ; secondly, the elementary books which were published, to assist in carrying those methods into practice ; and thirdly, the schools which were established, not with the view of retaining them under their own direction, and still less of taking possession of primary instruction, but to supply, in the mean time, to the ordinary schools, models by which they might improve their systems. As these schools required an active management, and direct supervision, the society, as a body, did not take charge of them, but confided that duty to its different departments : on that account their schools have been called departmental ; a name that has nothing to do with the departments of the kingdom,

which were established long after the period in question. Besides these schools, which were intended only for children recommended by members of the society, some of its departments established schools for the poor, entirely gratis. In the greater number of them, they went so far as to form small libraries, with the view of affording to the work people of both sexes, who had left the schools, an opportunity, by means of interesting books, of keeping alive those sentiments of morality and religion, which had been implanted in them at school.

Labours so varied and so extended, could not fail to have an influence upon the improvement of public education ; but that influence would have probably remained for ever feeble, precarious, or at least confined to certain districts, without the powerful intervention of the government. This was at first partial only ; different towns, excited either by example, or by representations of the departments of the society which were established among them, set about the improvement of their schools, or the establishment of new schools ; and in this way, the magistrates of Amsterdam, in 1797, guided by the recommendations of the two departments in that city, erected their noble schools for the education of those children of the poor who did not belong to any particular church ; schools where there are now more than 4000 pupils of both sexes ^a.

But in 1801, 1803 ^b, and 1806, the government testified

^a Amsterdam had two schools for the poor as early as 1746 ; there are now eleven.

^b Mr. Van der Palm, Professor of Oriental languages in the University of Leyden, had the principal share in bringing forward the

its respect for the society, by following the advice of several of its members in the measures which it adopted at these several periods, for the improvement and general organization of primary instruction. The law of 1806^a, and the general regulations annexed to it, constitute the rule for every thing that relates to the primary schools; it is therefore necessary for us to give in this report a brief analysis of it.

The authors of that law were on their guard against a desire to remodel every thing anew; on the contrary, they recognized all the existing schools, such as they then were, and by whatever means they were maintained; but they subjected all to one regular and uniform system of superintendence.

The public authorities were required to see that there should be at all times a sufficient number of schools, but at the same time to take care that they should not be multiplied too much by the speculations of individuals; and that due provisions should be made for the support of the masters, and to keep the schoolhouses in a proper state.

The schools themselves are distinguished into *public* and *private*; the former including all such as are maintained, either wholly or in part, by some public fund, whether provincial, parochial, ecclesiastical, or otherwise. The private schools are divided into two classes: 1st, those

law of 1801, being then Commissioner of Public Instruction, as well as the law of 1803, when he was a member of the Council for the Home Department. The law of 1806 is a development of that of 1803, better adapted to meet the opinions and satisfy the claims of the local authorities.

^a See Appendix A.

maintained either by charitable associations, such as the Society for the Public Good ; or by religious communities, by means of collections under the management of their deacons ; or by individuals who undertake the expense of them from benevolent motives, or who combine and raise a fund, by annual contributions from members of the association, in order to obtain an education for their children which they cannot get in any other way ; 2dly, schools set up by individuals, as a private speculation, and supported wholly by fees from the pupils.

With regard to the teachers, it is enacted that no one shall be allowed to teach unless he can produce, 1st, a certificate of competency of a determinate amount ; (*algemeene toelating tot het geven van onderwijs* ;) 2dly, a call or particular nomination to a certain school, or at least, in the case of a private teacher of the second class, a license for a certain place ; (*speciale beroeping, aanstelling of admissie* ;) but the right of conferring the call or nomination is reserved to those who had previously been in possession of it, or might acquire it afterwards by foundations.

Four kinds of certificates are prescribed ; the fourth or lowest rank implies no more than a knowledge of reading, writing, and arithmetic ; for the third, they require, besides these, a knowledge of the elements of the Dutch language, and some notions of good methods of teaching. For the second, it is necessary for the candidates to have a thorough knowledge of their own language, to be acquainted with the theory and practice of arithmetic, to have some notions of history and geography, and a familiarity with methods of teaching. But the first rank cannot be

obtained unless the candidate, besides a systematic knowledge of every thing relating to primary instruction, and to good methods of teaching, possesses some acquaintance with mechanical philosophy and geometry. The mode of examination for each degree is prescribed.

Each province is divided into a certain number of districts, and to each a superintendent is appointed, whose duty it is to inspect all the schools, to visit them at least twice a year, to look after their interests in all matters coming under the cognizance of the local authorities, and to make reports as to their condition, according to certain prescribed forms. Moreover, in the large towns, besides the district inspector, committees of individuals are established, (*plaatselijke schoolcommissien*,) the members of which take charge of different quarters of the town.

In every public or private school of the first class, the directors, curators, or managers, constituted by its original constitution, are continued.

The united body of the different district inspectors of the province form the provincial board of public instruction; their duty being, to receive the report of each inspector relative to his own district, to examine the masters, to deliver to them their certificates of competency, to deliberate upon every thing that may appear useful for the schools, and once a year at least, to make a report to the provincial authorities, (since that time, to the prefect,) upon the state of the schools. It is enacted that upon a certain day in each year, each board shall send a deputy to the capital to constitute with his colleagues a general committee, under the eye of the

Minister of the Interior, in order to render an account of the state of matters, to propose such new means of improvement as may be suggested in different places, to make a report upon the whole subject to the government, and apply for the adoption of such measures as may be necessary^a.

The government is authorized to grant to each province a certain sum, to meet the expenses of the travelling and meetings of the inspectors, but it is on such a scale that the duties must be performed almost gratuitously.

The mode of choosing these inspectors is excellent; they are taken, in general, from among such proprietors or clergymen in the town or rural district as are most eligible, on account of their having a taste for the subject of the education of youth; from among those school-masters who have most distinguished themselves in their vocation, and, in the towns where universities or grammar schools exist, from among the professors and rectors^b.

A Commissioner or Inspector-General, under the immediate orders of the Minister was appointed to draw up minutes of the general committee, to correspond with the provincial boards, to make known and recommend the early adoption of improved methods, to prepare a list of the books to be used in the schools, to watch over the

^a Forms for all the different kinds of reports are annexed to a decree of the Minister of the Interior, dated the 13th February, 1807.

^b The division of the province into districts, the grant of money for each department, and the appointment of the inspectors, formed the subject of a decree of the 2nd June, 1806, and the inspectors were required to enter on their duties on the 2nd of July.

maintenance of order in all places, and to submit to the Minister whatever measures may be necessary for that part of public instruction^a.

The general regulations for the schools were signed and issued by the Minister of the Interior^b; each province drew up a special code of regulations for itself, conformably with the provisions of the general regulations; and each town, when it was deemed necessary, made a code for its own government, taking care not to contravene any of the articles of the provincial code^c. Moreover, the individual managers of schools, and those at the head of boarding schools or private schools, were allowed to draw up regulations for themselves, under this condition only, that they should not be contrary in any respect to the codes of higher authority. In all these matters, the district inspectors, as may be easily supposed, were con-

^a The functions of that Commissioner, legally established by a decree of the 30th May, 1806, were fixed by a decree of the Grand Pensionary of the same date, intituled "*Instructie voor den Commissaris van het lager schoolwezen en onderwijs in de Bataafsche Republiek*." Mr. Van den Ende, who was appointed to the office, had been in the department of primary instruction, that is, in the office of the Commissioner of Education in the council for the Home Department, from the month of October 1800. He was nominated Inspector-General by the King on the 28th of February, 1808.

^b *Notificatie van den Secretaris van Staat voor de Binnenlandsehe Zaken der Bataafsche Republiek, behelzende eene algemeene Schoolorder voor de lagere Scholen binnen de Bataafsche Republiek*, 23 Mai, 1806. *Haag*, 1806.

^c See, among others, the codes of Amsterdam of the 11th of April, 1811; of Haarlem of the 23d of July, 1809; and of Groningen of the 13th July, 1807.

sidered to be the natural judges, with an appeal, in the last instance, to the Minister of the Interior. All regulations then in existence which were in no respect at variance with the new system were continued in force^a.

The total number of district inspectors in Holland, before the accession of East Friesland to its territory, and the dismemberments which followed, was fifty-six; at present there are forty-seven, for the provinces which have been left to it, without including East Friesland. The total amount of the expenses of the meetings and travelling of the inspectors, at the above mentioned period, amounted only to 46,000 francs^b, and it must be much less now, as their number is reduced by one sixth. If about 8,000 francs (333*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*) be added for the salary of the inspector general and the expenses of his office, we shall have the whole amount of the charge of a system so useful and so effective, in a country with so dense a population. The sum cannot certainly be considered large, taking into account the number of schools and of pupils, and especially the improvements which have been brought about in so short a time.

The present number of schools and pupils is very re-

^a Thus, the code drawn up by the curators of the schools for the poor at Amsterdam continues in force. The first part of that code is dated the 7th of February, 1798. *Reglement of School-order voor de Nederduitsche Stads Armen-Scholen binnen Amsterdam*, and there are additions to it up to 1810. There is an infinite number of other codes of the same sort.

^b 22900 florins, (decree of 2d June, 1806,) equal to about £1900.

markable. What was left of Holland, at the time of the incorporation of a part of its territory with the French empire, contained 4451 primary schools of all descriptions, and more than 190,000 pupils, in a population of 1,900,000 souls; or, a tenth part of the inhabitants; proving that the greater part of the children of school age were educated. Several of the prefects informed us, and we may mention particularly the prefect of Groningen, who is a native of that province, that not a single boy unable to read and write could be found in their department. Now although great pains were at all times bestowed in Holland to have the children sent to school, they had not, a few years ago, arrived at anything like that point; and the numbers we have mentioned are considerably above what existed before the passing of the new laws; this arises partly from greater confidence on the part of parents, by the increased facilities afforded to them, and partly by the interest taken by the public authorities in the schools; the school-houses having been improved, the salaries of the masters increased, and care being bestowed to choose the best masters. In proof of what we now say, we may refer to the very interesting account of the improvements introduced in one district, the third in the province of Friesland. It was drawn up in conformity with a plan given by the inspector-general, Mr. Van den Ende, by Mr. Visser, a clergyman at Ysbrechtum, one of those inspectors who have most distinguished themselves by activity and zeal. It contains a comparative statement of the school-houses, of the instruction, the fixed salaries of the masters, the amount of the fees, and the number of the pupils in 1801 and 1810;

by which one sees, at a glance, the rapid progress which this system has made^a.

One essential circumstance in the system, which is both a cause and an effect, is the comfortable condition of the masters: they depend for their fixed salary on the liberality of the municipal authorities, and for the casual part of their income, on the confidence which parents repose in them; but the system never fails to procure masters worthy of the good opinion of both parties. Very few of the schoolmasters, even in the villages, have less than 1000 francs a year, (41*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*.) several have more than three and four thousand; and the greater number have, besides, a neat and commodious dwelling, and a garden of greater or less extent. The consequence is, that they have the manners and the conversation of men who are not borne down by indigence; a placid deportment, the result of habitual contentment, sheds its influence over those who live with them, and the certainty of attaining so pleasant a lot, renders it easy to find excellent assistants from among the best of the scholars trained up by themselves.

But we have said enough of the external circumstances of the schools; we shall now look into their interior, and examine them in themselves; and we shall describe the subjects taught, and the methods employed in teaching.

In regard to the subjects taught, the primary schools in Holland differ, according as they are intended for the education of the humbler classes in the towns and

^a See also the essay by the same author, intituled *Het wijze en weldadige der Schoolverordeningen door 's Lands Hooge Magten vastgesteld in het jaar, 1806.* Amsterdam, 1810, in 8vo.

rural districts, or for the children of the middle ranks; The first are called popular or trivial schools, and the schools for the poor are of that description, as far as the education is concerned; with this only difference, that the children in these schools pay nothing. The others are called burgher schools, and the education varies according as the pupils intend afterwards to go to a grammar school, or, on leaving the school, to go at once to a trade or profession. In the latter case, the education is carried furthest. The regular course of instruction in the *popular* schools consists of reading, calligraphy, orthography, mental and written arithmetic, elements of linear drawing and geography, and practice in church music. But the books in which the children are taught to read, the subjects dictated to them, the writing copies, the hymns and psalms which they sing, are of such a nature that they learn and imbibe at the same time, almost imperceptibly, an infinite variety of useful things.

The composition, the selection, the proper gradation of the school books, is therefore the fundamental basis of the whole system. There is an astonishing number of them, as every one has the privilege of proposing those he approves of: but Mr. Van den Ende has drawn up a catalogue of the best, by order of the Minister of the Interior, in which they are arranged according to subjects, and in the order they should be read in the classes^a. Those which are to be used first, have prints, calculated to be attractive to children, to give them some ideas of external objects, and to connect in their memories the

^a *Algemeene boekenlijst ten dienste der lagere scholen in Holland*. Leiden, 1810, in 8vo.

words with the ideas they represent. Next follow others containing short moral stories, calculated to interest them. After these come books which treat of natural objects, either curious in themselves, or useful to man; processes of art the most necessary to be made acquainted with; and in all of them, useful reflections upon providence, and upon the duties which man owes to his fellow-creatures, are introduced. Sacred history, profane history, the history of their native country, treated in a manner to be understood by children, are the subjects of other school books; and there are some in which the principal civil and criminal laws are explained. The sentences either dictated to them, or given to be copied, always contain some maxims or moral truths adapted to that time of life^a. In shewing the children how to draw, or rather to trace regular lines, they teach them to measure distances and angles by the eye; and the examples in arithmetic are contrived to make them familiar with the relative values of weights and measures. Their hymns tell them the gratitude they owe to the Author of nature, the kindly feelings which should attach them to their parents, their masters, and their country, and the happiness they will derive from such affectionate feelings. The fruit of all this is, that without devoting one minute more to it, and while they think they are doing nothing more than learning to read, write, and cypher, they are imprinting on their memories what children in ordinary schools either never know, or only

^a There is a collection of phrases and little pieces used as copies: *Opstellen tot voorschriften om na te schrijven, ten dienste der Scholen in het Koninkrijk Holland.* Amsterdam, 1809.

learn with difficulty, when their occupation gives them any leisure to read, after they have left school ; and thus their minds are imbued with calm and noble sentiments, which intercourse with the world will doubtless but too soon weaken ; but the impression of them can never be entirely obliterated.

✓ . Almost as much has been written for the benefit of the masters as for the children ; the methods which they ought to follow, and even the questions which they may put to their pupils on every subject, are pointed out in books expressly composed for the purpose ^a.

The means devised for the religious instruction of the children of all persuasions, are extremely ingenious, and at the same time highly appropriate, without involving them in the dangers of controversy. The particular doctrines of each communion are taught on Sundays, in the several places of worship, and by the clergy. The history of the New Testament, the life and doctrines of Jesus Christ, and those doctrines in which all Christians agree, are taught in the school on Saturdays, the day on which the Jews do not come to school, on account of their sabbath. But those truths which are common to all religions, pervade, are connected with, and are intimately mixed up with every branch of instruction, and every thing else may be said to be subordinate to them.

The division of the time is usually as follows : two hours in the morning, and two in the afternoon for the ordinary scholars, and two hours in the evening for those

^a See, in particular, *Handboek voor de Onderwijzers op de openbare lagere Scholen binnen het Bataafsch Gemeenebest*. Amsterdam, 1803, 2 vols., in 8vo.

young people who have left the day school to be put to a trade, but are desirous of keeping up and confirming what they had learned. That evening class is an institution of the greatest utility, for it not only confirms all the good obtained at the day school, but it withdraws the young people from infinite risks of irregularity and corruption of manners. The pupils themselves are usually divided into three orders or classes, according as they are learning reading only, or at the same time writing or arithmetic.

It remains for us now to point out in what way so large a number of children are taught, at one time, the mechanical arts of reading and writing; things so difficult, that one is at a loss in after life to understand how they could be accomplished in one's infancy. *

The smallest children are arranged on benches, the one behind the other, opposite to a black board. The master has his letters upon little tablets, which he fixes one after another upon the board, by means of slips or some other contrivance: whatever arrests the attention, or amuses the children most, is the best. He makes them observe the form of each letter, one after the other, and teaches them the sound of it, beginning with the common vowels; passing next to the simple sounds indicated by the use of two vowels, but which are considered as if they were simple vowels, and afterwards to the articulate sounds or consonants, simple or compound, which are distinguished also by their sound, adding only an unaccented *e*. Forty or fifty children can see at one time; they call out the names of the letters all together, and soon after the syllables, which the master puts before them; they learn in this way without being subject to the labour of being

taught individually, and without being exposed to scoldings. They finish with making the children read whole words in chorus ; and then for the first time they give them books to read from, one after the other ; and in this exercise they take care to call them up at random, and not in any regular order, so that all may keep their eyes fixed on what one of them is reading.

In learning to write, pretty nearly the same method is adopted : forty or fifty children having small slates and pencils in their hands follow what the master traces on the great board. They are first shewn the simple strokes, and are carried on by degrees to form the letters. When they know these by heart, they are made to write syllables, and then words, at first after a copy, and then to dictation. In proportion as they advance in their knowledge of orthography, they are taught to correct, orally, phrases written purposely with faults on the black board. They finish with putting questions to the children, to which they must write answers, and thus they carry them on to compose letters or some short composition, such as people in the common ranks of life may have occasion to write.

We have said that while they are taught to read and to write, their lessons are such as to convey at the same time a great variety of useful ideas. Care is taken to impress these well on their minds, by means of questions skilfully varied and repeated. Other questions are employed to make them understand the proper meaning of terms, and to enable them to distinguish between apparent synonyms and homonyms. In none of these things is the master left to his own imagination ; numerous books supply him with all possible questions,

Numeration and the first two rules are taught to the youngest children, in a very simple way. There are a number of cubes which they make them count; when they have got a notion of simple numbers, they are taught the signs of these, by putting by the side of each figure a corresponding number of dots. Ten cubes collected in a little group convey the idea of tens, and in like manner they contrive to make them comprehend in a short time the value which the figures acquire according to their position, and the nature of decimal fractions. Always playing with his cubes, the master teaches them quite as quickly addition, subtraction, and multiplication, by examples of single figures, and then he passes on to the ordinary operations. It will scarcely be believed how much the substitution of slates for paper, among all the younger children, has the effect of introducing order, dispatch and cleanliness in the school. They do not give them paper until they are going to form their handwriting, and then they place them in that part of the class where there are desks.

In teaching geography they begin with a plan of the town where the school is situated, drawn on a large scale on the wall, and the pupils are made to distinguish the cardinal points and the direction of the streets; they are afterwards shown a map of the district, then that of the province, and so by degrees to the map of the world. All these maps are on a large scale, and few places are marked upon them, in order to avoid confusing their first ideas. They do not make use of ordinary maps until they have nearly done with the subject, and they finish with giving a summary notion of the sphere, in place of beginning with it, as is usually the case in most of our books.

What is most surprising, is the quietness and rapidity with which all this is done. The master has scarcely occasion to speak, except when he is going to put questions ; the pupils themselves have signs in place of asking for what they want. When a question is put, all those who think they are able to answer it hold up their finger, and the master calls up one of them : in short, not a word is heard, except what is strictly necessary in the lesson : to teach tranquillity and propriety of manner is one of the chief objects in education. All the children are required to come with clean faces and hands : when they enter the school, the youngest of them slip into their places without saying a word. In the schools for the poor, where books and paper are furnished, the pupil at the head of each form has to collect, at the end of the lesson, all that have been used by the pupils sitting on the same form with him : in the ordinary schools, every pupil has a little cupboard for locking up what belongs to him ; and his *amour propre* is stimulated to keep all he has in nice order : the very hat-pins are arranged with all the regularity of Dutch neatness.

These details may appear puerile, but there is not one of them which may not have some influence on the habits of the children for the rest of their lives. Far therefore from despising or neglecting them, we would rather have wished to have inquired more minutely into all the circumstances connected with them ; being well persuaded that very many of them ought to be introduced into all the schools of the empire, for they could not fail to have a most marked effect upon the manners of the lower orders.

The attention of this large number of children is kept up principally in two ways. The first is by a judicious

selection of the things told them, so that they may be always interested ; for when they first begin, they are played with ; and as soon as they are able to read, in place of giving them only one book, as we do, which they frequently do not understand, several are given to them in succession, presenting always something new and suited to their age. The second method is to excite a moderate degree of emulation, but so controlled as not to degenerate into rivalry. The head boy of each form marks down in a list the good or bad answers of each pupil, and all the varieties of faults ; and every day that list is hung up in the school : a summary of it is made once a week, and the name of the best scholar in each class is posted up with due honour. There is another place for the names of the worst scholars. When the local committee, or the district inspector, visits the school, the best scholars receive certificates from them, which they can take home to shew their parents. There is also an annual examination at which prizes are distributed. A judicious use of these simple means has made it possible to abolish corporal punishments. ✓

One thing however in the Dutch schools rather shocked our habits ;—the boys and girls are admitted to the same school. We were constantly assured that no inconvenience had ever been experienced from the practice ; and as the custom prevails not only in the schools for the poor, but also in all the burgher schools, where the parents pay tolerably high fees, and are free to make other arrangements for their children, we could not refuse credit to the statements. ✓

The description we have just given is taken from the schools for the poor established by the parishes, and

chiefly from those in Amsterdam and Haarlem, where the new regulations were introduced with least difficulty and least opposition. The city of Amsterdam has eleven of these schools, one being in each of the eleven quarters into which the town is divided, and in these more than 4000 children are admitted ; but their parents must either be supported from the public poor's fund, or produce attestations of poverty. The desire of admission is so great, that the name must be set down a long time beforehand ; but in no case can they be admitted under eight years of age, or be allowed to remain after fourteen. After arriving at that time of life, such of the girls as have behaved well are admitted into two schools, called Schools of Industry, where they are taught needle-work : the boys go to such trades as they like. The children educated in these schools are very much sought after, either for domestic servants, or as apprentices in different sorts of trades ; a proof that the public have a high idea of the education they receive. The particular management of these schools is confided to eighteen directors and ten directresses, who serve gratuitously, and divide the duties among them. The whole expense is about 36,000 florins, or about 73,000 francs, (about £3040,) the city itself contributing little more than 50,000 ; and the children are provided with every thing. In Haarlem there are three schools for the poor, supported by the town, with the aid of charitable contributions. One of them is under the direction of Mr. Anslyn, who has published some small school-books, and whose method of teaching we witnessed with great satisfaction, in all the branches taught. There are 1400 children in these three schools.

The deaconry schools are a kind of schools for the poor, which, in place of belonging to the towns, belong to the churches, and have been either founded or are supported by church collections. They are subject, like the rest, to the general superintendence of the inspectors, but the immediate management is in the hands of the parochial deacons: they only admit the poor children of their own communion, in order that the religious instruction may be special and continual. Thus, in the schools belonging to the Reformed churches, the catechism of Heidelberg is taught. In other respects the deaconry schools have adopted the methods recommended by the Society for the Public Good, and consequently resemble the municipal schools for the poor, except that their income being less certain, they are not so well kept up; and as in the Reformed communion, the office of deacon is filled in rotation by different inhabitants of the parish, there is a less degree of regularity, and the principles of superintendence are less settled. The Walloon Reformed churches, being composed for the most part of the descendants of refugees, have this peculiarity, that they teach French in their deaconry schools; it is a homage which these unfortunate families have always rendered to their ancient native land. The Catholics have never had any schools of this sort; and it is said that the Lutherans in Amsterdam have recently been obliged to close theirs, from want of funds. But in proportion as the municipal schools have been increased and improved, these parochial schools have become less necessary, and it is quite natural that the charity of those who supported them should be directed to other objects. Unhappily, late events having caused several of the parishes to get into debt, there are

some even of the municipal schools which are threatened with a like fate; thus, the town of Alkmaar, in North Holland, which has an excellent school for the poor, having got a very good school-house by purchasing an old Mennonite church, will perhaps be under the necessity of shutting it up, from being unable to pay the thousand florins which it cost. The schools which, by an arrangement with the parishes, the government maintains either wholly or in part, are still worse off; for the present; for notwithstanding the formal engagement in the decree of the 18th October, 1810, they have received nothing from the public treasury for eight months^a. The synagogues support few schools for their poor; and their chief object is to teach Hebrew. The schools attached to hospitals, and those of orphan asylums, may also be classed among the schools for the poor. The latter charities, which are very numerous in Holland, are managed, in some instances, by the municipal authorities; in others, by the deacons of the churches; or in Jewish establishments, by the agents of the synagogues: some are under the direction of particular curators, according to the terms of their foundation; but all have schools, and we were assured that they are conducted as much as possible after the best models. We must confess, however, that we were much shocked by the improper association of both sexes, which is carried much farther than in the municipal schools for the poor, as the orphans remain in the asylums to a later period of life. There are some orphan asylums at Amsterdam where the girls are allowed

^a His Imperial Majesty has just ordered that all arrears relative to the public instruction shall be paid.

to go out alone; and it is difficult to believe that no improper use is made of that liberty, as they are so frequently met with in the streets; but it belongs to the ordinary managers to correct these errors in their system.

We cannot quit the subject of schools for the poor without making a short digression to speak of a noble establishment, the object of which is also the education of orphans, and which we give as an example of that vast number of useful foundations which the Dutch have established: although its object is somewhat higher than that of schools for the people, it is still connected with the orphan schools, and we shall have no better opportunity than this of mentioning it.

The institution is called the *Renswoude Foundation*, from the name of the foundress, *Maria Duist van Voorhout van Renswoude*. That lady left by will, in 1756, a sum in the Dutch funds yielding about 45,000 florins annually, (about £3750,) to be employed in bringing up in such departments of the liberal arts as are most useful to the country, a certain number of children, to be chosen from among those orphans of the Reformed churches in the three towns of Delft, The Hague, and Utrecht, who should evince the most aptitude for them; the managers of the orphan asylums in these towns were appointed to carry the views of the foundress into effect, in conformity with her instructions, each for their own town, without being at all dependent on the others, and each receiving one-third of the amount left; and the first sums were directed to be applied in providing the necessary houses and furniture. Nothing can be more amiable than the idea of such an institution, which restores children whom the premature loss of parents might perhaps have reduced to the most

forlorn state to honourable stations in society. These young people, who are admitted at the age of thirteen, are lodged, fed, and respectably clothed; are under a careful superintendence as to their morals; and are prepared by an excellent education until they are sixteen years of age, for that profession for which they show the most taste and aptitude; they are then sent to those places in the town where they may study their profession with most advantage, and they are maintained until they set up for themselves, the allowances continuing until they are twenty-three years of age.

The Renswoude institutions have supplied Holland with many engineers, some of whom have attained the highest rank in their profession, with mathematical instrument makers, mechanicians, statuaries, and painters; many surgeons, and even veterinary surgeons, have been brought up in them. From the register kept in the establishment at Delft, it appears that more than sixty have been educated at that place, and the two other towns have probably each sent out an equal number. We visited all the three with great interest; the houses are very handsome, those of Delft and Utrecht perhaps a little too much so, for one regrets the loss of the money laid out on their embellishment. In each of the houses there is a kind of governor, who is called the *Father*, who looks after the young people and teaches them the Dutch and French languages; there is a tutor for their religious instruction, a drawing master, a master for mathematics and mechanical philosophy, and a master for architecture: they have all excellent collections of instruments, of engravings, and casts for drawing. The collections of the establishment at The Hague are very considerable. Latin is not taught, a pre-

judice existing very generally both in Holland and Germany, that it is only necessary for the professions which are exclusively called learned; it is, however, very clear that it would be useful both to surgeons and engineers. The emoluments of the masters were formerly from eight to twelve hundred florins; (£67 to £100;) the Father had somewhat less, as he is boarded in the establishment; and there were about twelve pupils in each house; but now that the revenue has been reduced to one-third, in common with all others who had property in the public funds, it has been necessary to reduce the establishments in the same proportion; the consequence has been, that the masters have no longer a sufficient remuneration, so that they will be obliged to give up their situations, or unite along with them some other occupation which will distract their attention; and the number of pupils who can now be upon the foundation is small indeed, compared with the size of the house and the apparatus which has been provided to enable them to carry on their education.

To return to the primary schools, properly so called, which the Renswoude Foundation has carried us a little away from, we shall say a few words about the village schools. They scarcely differ from the schools for the poor in the towns, except that, in general, all the children pay; the effect of this is, that there is a better selection of children, and a greater degree of emulation among the masters, and on these accounts they are both nicer looking and better kept. The children of the poor are not, however, excluded, but the parish, or some charitable association pays for them; and thus the richest inhabitants of the village, and even those who live in the towns and come to

the country for the summer, do not hesitate to send their children to the school. The fees are no more than one stuyver, or two sous French, weekly; but the large number of pupils always secures a considerable income to the master. It is by no means rare to find such schools with from 250 to 300 scholars; but those only can understand how the numbers can be so great who have seen the beautiful villages in North Holland and the province of Groningen. These last especially, which are less known, deserve a particular description.

They are colonies founded by the town of Groningen, in vast marshy districts, which have been brought into cultivation by unconquerable labour; after removing the spongy peat which retained the water, they found a sandy and fertile soil below it; this was rendered dry by an infinite number of small drains, by which the water was conveyed to large canals, connected together, which emptied themselves either into some river or into the sea. Upon the dikes which separate these canals the villages are built, several of which extend in this way one or two leagues: the excellence of the road, the neatness of the houses, the pretty plantations which surround them, all demonstrate the high degree of prosperity now enjoyed in these places, which were at one time a pestiferous desert. In the centre of the village stands the school-house, which yields in handsome appearance to no other; it is built and supported at the expense of the town of Groningen, the proprietors of the colony, and the principal part of it is a very large, well lighted, well ventilated, school-room, for the reception of the numerous scholars who frequent it. Sometimes there are as many rooms as there are classes; but that subdivision is not necessary,

for both the master and his assistants know very well how to give their lessons in their separate corners without disturbing each other. At a little distance, are the churches belonging to the different sects, where the children go on Sundays in separate groups, with the same religious feelings and without dissensions. The master, clothed in the same way as the peasantry among whom he lives, might find himself at his ease in the best society. Mr. Wester, for example, who has been from thirty to forty years schoolmaster in the village of Oude Pekel-A, and is at present school inspector of the district, is the author of some works on the art of teaching, which are highly esteemed. The salary of these masters is paid sometimes by the parish, sometimes by the principal church, but most frequently by the town of Groningen; which, in some of the districts, receives grants from the public funds of the province. The salaries vary from three to four or five hundred florins, according to the localities. A hundred pupils yield five florins weekly besides, or 250 per annum; so that schools with 300 pupils, of which we saw several, produce 750 florins, or more than 1500 francs, out of which the master pays his assistants. The education is the same as in the schools for the poor; but as they have no longer so great a dread as they had of giving ideas which might make the children discontented with their lot, (for the situation of a peasant in Holland is one of the happiest in the world,) they go a little farther in their instruction in style, in history, and in geography; in some places even French was taught, long before the recent events. A little of geometry is given, such as may be useful to those who are to be brought up to the sea.

Next in rank to the village schools, as far as the amount of instruction given, comes that kind of primary school which they call the burgher schools, (*burger-scholen*,) where the children of citizens are educated, on payment of certain fees. Most children come to these with a certain degree of preparation from having attended schools of an inferior description, kept by women, (*schoolhouderessen*,) who do nothing more than teach the elements of reading. At the burgher school, they teach reading, writing, religion, geography, the elements of history, the elements of mathematics, almost always French, frequently English, and sometimes German. From the enumeration of the subjects taught, it will be seen that they are schools of such a description as a country almost wholly mercantile would consider necessary. It will be evident too that they would be, for the most part, private establishments, over which the government could exercise less authority, and in which the progress and the methods of teaching must have constantly varied, according to the views of those to whom they belonged; but the competition of the public schools has gradually obliged the most obstinate of the masters of those private schools to adopt the improvements, from the danger of losing their pupils and their incomes. They have been especially compelled to this by the preponderating competition of the Society for the Public Good, whose schools, of the same nature in reality as their own, had much greater means of improvement, in consequence of the numerous subscriptions by which they were supported. We shall therefore speak in the first place of the schools of that society, which may, for the most part, rank with the best of the burgher schools.

None are admitted to these schools except the children

of members of the society, or such as they nominate by virtue of their rights as subscribers ; every pupil must also pay certain fees, and the number is limited, in order that the rooms may not be crowded, and to prevent a greater number than the teachers can do justice to. In some of the schools gratis scholars are admitted, but only children of respectable families, in order not to displease the parents of those who pay. The schools are maintained, 1st, by grants from the departmental funds of the society ; 2ndly, by voluntary contributions from certain members, for the schools alone ; and 3dly, by the fees of the pupils already mentioned ; and as they are disinterested undertakings, without the necessity or the wish to make them profitable concerns, the funds derived from these three sources are in general quite sufficient to accomplish every thing, in the most ample manner, that is considered in the country to belong to primary instruction. Some of these schools receive assistance from public contributions, and in that case there are no bounds to their prosperity. King Louis, for example, gave the school at the Hague a very fine house, which formerly contained the library of the Stadtholder, situated in one of the principal situations in the town, called the *Buiten Hof*, and thus made it the first primary school in Holland. They admit 200 boys and 80 girls, who are divided into three classes^a ; they are received at five years of age ; one master superintends the whole, with two or three assistants and some of the pupils who have been trained to teach. Each pupil pays 33 florins

^a See the *Reglement voor de School, opgerigt door het Haagsche departement der Batavische Maatschappij tot Nut van 't algemeen, en Instructie voor den Onderwijzer, op dexelve school*. The Hague, 1806, in 8vo.

(2l. 15s.) yearly, and paper and pens are provided; the children of eight years old write with great facility, and at ten or twelve they work the most complicated arithmetical calculations. They copy small maps, and learn by degrees to draw maps of all countries entirely from memory, by which they gain a very thorough knowledge of geography. French is taught to beginners by means of the grammar of Lhomond, and to those more advanced, by that of Gueroult. Within the last two years they have added a class for drawing. This establishment is in a flourishing condition, as indeed it ought to be from the considerable sum expended upon it. The head master has 1,500 florins a year, with apartments; his two assistants have each 600, the French master 800, the drawing master in proportion, and all the furniture, &c., is very complete. Besides the day-school, which is open every morning, and four times a week in the afternoon, there is an evening school four times a week, which the more advanced pupils attend to revise what they have learned. On that occasion only, the boys and girls are separated; in the day school, where there are only children, they do no more than make the girls sit at different tables from the boys; none are admitted to the evening school before eight or nine years of age.

The Society for the Public Good have now at Amsterdam only one school for about eighty boys, and two girls' schools; they lately gave up two boys' schools, because the general improvement that has taken place in other schools renders theirs unnecessary; and their grant for their present boys' school does not exceed 900 florins. The house is not nearly so good as that at The Hague; each pupil pays fifty-two florins a year, thirty of which go

to the master. As the master has some full boarders and half-boarders, and is provided with apartments, his income may be estimated at 4,000 florins, or above 8,000 francs (£333); his pupils are tolerably conversant with French and English, they are taught mechanical philosophy illustrated by experiments; and as they are much amused by these lessons, they are given in French, so that a double advantage is obtained. In the girls' schools, besides the branches of knowledge suited to their sex, they are taught needle-work, &c.

The school of the society at Haarlem is under the direction of Mr. Prinsen, the author of some works on the art of teaching of great reputation; and this was one of the schools which we examined, and in which we studied the methods of teaching we have described. They only take a hundred children, the youngest being five years old, and they pay twelve, fifteen, or eighteen florins, according to the class they attend. The emoluments of the master are nearly 1,100 florins, with apartments; the assistants not only receive nothing besides books, but some of them even pay for the benefit of the practical instruction in teaching.

We also saw several of those establishments called departmental schools; that, for example, at Utrecht, in which there are sixty pupils, that at Groningen with 150, and that of Franeker, which is less numerously attended; they vary in the amount of the fees, the emoluments of the masters, and other particulars of that sort; but they are all animated with the same spirit, and it is unnecessary to enter into further details respecting them.

«It is important to remark, in general, that the methods

✓ of teaching are not prescribed with such a degree of rigour as to deprive the masters of all liberty of following out their own particular views ; the freedom thus left to them has been productive of many improvements, and of many plans which were preferable to those that had been first proposed by the society ; and the local boards have been more particularly valuable, by the opportunity they have afforded of introducing speedily into general use whatever was thus found to be advantageous. >> Nor are the differences that exist in the salaries and other advantages of the masters less useful, because the hope of promotion serves as a stimulus to exertion ; and there is no master who may not hope to better his condition if he distinguishes himself in his vocation.

The ordinary burgher schools and those which are strictly private, derive no assistance from subscriptions, nor receive any aid from the towns or corporate bodies. There being no bond of connection between them, and consequently no regular means of promotion for the teachers they employ, and as they submit unwillingly to any direction from the public inspectors, they are, *cæteris paribus*, inferior to those we have been describing ; and we remarked that to be the case in the most of those which we visited. The number of them, however, is immense ; in the city of Amsterdam alone, where there are so many municipal and parochial schools, as well as others belonging to public charities and societies, they reckon that there are 288 schools called primary, all kept by individuals, for children of all ages and religions, and of both sexes. Haarlem, with a population of 30,000, has three municipal schools for the poor, five charity schools, and

one of the society; and there are eighteen private schools besides; and they exist in the same proportion in other towns.

It now only remains for us, before concluding what we have to say on primary instruction, to explain in what way so many schools can be supplied with sufficiently qualified masters; and it is in this that the productive powers of the established system are most eminently conspicuous. They have found no want either of normal ✓ schools, or of seminaries for schoolmasters, or of any of those expensive and complicated systems that have been devised in other countries. The masters for primary schools are trained in the primary schools themselves, and without any additional expense. The Society for the Public Good had also the merit of contriving this simple and effective mode; they relieved the most distinguished pupils from the payment of school fees, and allowed them to remain in the school two or three years longer than the other pupils, on condition of their devoting themselves to teaching. As the situation of a schoolmaster has become more and more respectable and lucrative, in proportion as the schools have been improved, the number of competitors for the office has increased in the same proportion. They employ these two or three years in perfecting themselves in the several branches taught; the young men then become assistants to their masters, and take charge of the youngest children; then they are advanced to the situation of under master, and as the district inspectors have constant opportunities of watching their zeal and success, they recommend them according to their merit, for the situations of masters, when vacancies occur; nor do they then lose sight of them, but keep their

eye upon them for more advantageous masterships, when they shew themselves worthy of promotion. When another mode of nomination is not prescribed, they are chosen by competition, and then their comparative merits are discovered. The career is so sure a one, that there are instances, as we have already stated, of persons paying for beginning their profession under good masters. This system was first acted upon in 1800, in the schools for the poor at Amsterdam, which have already supplied one head master, eight under masters, and all the assistants that are at present employed. They have sent out several teachers besides, to schools in different towns and villages. Some zealous district inspectors have been in the habit of collecting, from time to time, the neighbouring masters and assistants at their own houses, for the purpose of instructing them in the most important parts of tuition ; we may mention among others, Mr. Van Swinderen, of Groningen, who has even established a small library for the use of the schoolmasters.

✓ From all we have now stated, it will be evident, that the whole system of primary instruction in Holland is founded upon three bases, strongly connected, and mutually dependent upon each other; namely, the excellence and respectable condition of the masters, the active superintendence of inspectors, and a constant vigilance to render the methods of instruction more and more perfect; if any one of these three were to be shaken, the shock would be instantly communicated to the others, and the beautiful structure would speedily fall to the ground.

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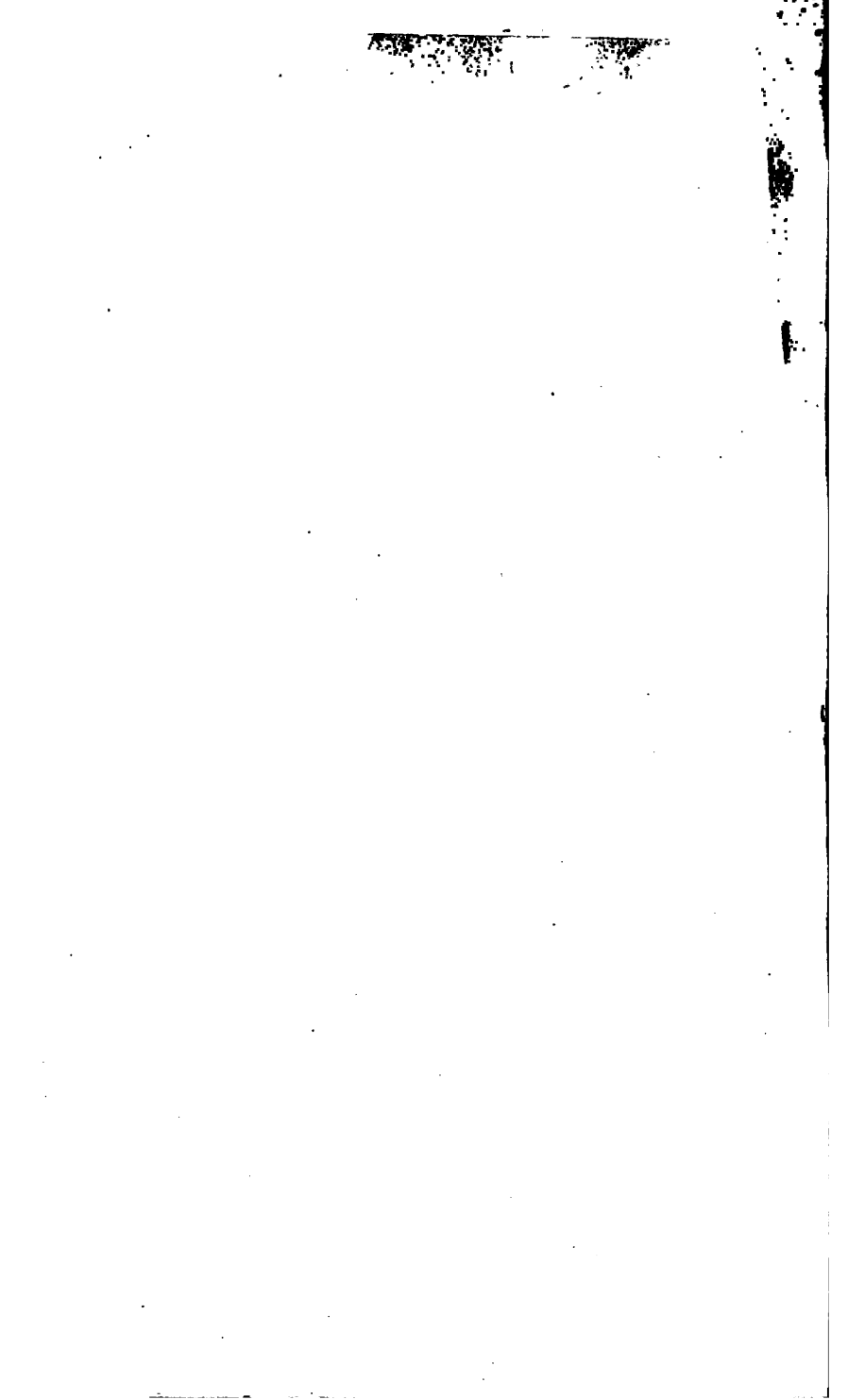
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